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ABSTRACT

"Connections '95" focused on educational collaboration and change and the process of becoming a professional. Following the introduction, "Creating the Context: Connections '95" (C. Miller and M. Sakari), the 16 conference papers are presented. The papers are: (1) "Taiga and Tundra: Art and Culture in a Changing Circumpolar World" (B. Zuk and R. Dalton); (2) "The Perspective of the Other: Differences and Equality" (D. W. Stanley); (3) "Curiouser and Curiouser" (S. Taylor, A. Oberg, H. Coey, B. Levis, and T. Main); (4) "Reading a Tango: Multiple Interpretations of Text" (A. Oberg, S. Taylor, C. M. Harvey, and P. Murray); (5) "Establishing Collaborative Research within a University of Victoria Partnership Program at Okanagan University College" (V. A. Green); (6) "The Processes of Researcher-Teacher Collaboration: Reflections of a Researcher and Two Teachers in a Project for Promoting Social Integration of Children with Special Needs" (L. Dyson, R. Rothnie, and R. Dryden); (7) "A Program for the Future: Implementation of a Non-Traditional Timetable" (K. M. Black); (8) "Schools and Family Resource Centres" (M. M. Mayfield); (9) "Ownership of Learning Portfolios" (M. B. Robertson); (10) "Themes of Development for Beginning Counsellor Trainees in an Off-Campus Graduate Program" (A. Marshall and T. Andersen); (11) "Self-Reflection in Our Future Teachers" (W. Boyer and C. Miller); (12) "Learning Styles and Self-Directed Learning in Indonesian Distance Education Students" (C. M. Harvey and B. Harvey); (13) "Characteristics of a Successful Learner" (T. Johnson); (14) "Personal Response Mapping: Some Research Possibilities" (D. Knowles); (15) "Forms of Stress among Counsellors Working with Trauma Survivors" (M. J. Arvay and M. R. Uhlemann); and (16) "Manifestation of Latent Thetas: A Comparison of Field-Study and Positivistic Approaches to the Investigation of Self-Nurturance" (R. S. Brown, J. O. Anderson, and M. M. McGee). The final entry is "'Get Curious, Not Cured': A Summary of the Connections '95 Conference Proceedings" (M. Recchi). Contains references at the end of papers. (ND)

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Edited by
Carole S. Miller
Mary D. Sakari

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CONNECTIONS '95

Edited by
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Mary D. Sakari

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CONNECTIONS '95

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Errata

Page 31

The following is replacement text for the abstract:

> *This play describes the difficulty of giving up the quest for certainty as experienced by graduate students in UVic's Curriculum Studies program.*

Page 44:

The following paragraph was omitted. It should be inserted after the paragraph which ends with the words "I am the teacher.":

"I" is also for intensity, intersubjectivity and irony. I am Samantha. I am a student. I resist this ideology. I want your attention. I provoke you. I prod you. You never respond. I'm not going to look at you. Where is the "you" in the teacher? Where am "I" in your eyes?

Acknowledgements

This publication involved a number of organizations and individuals whose contributions we would like to acknowledge. Fundamental to this project has been the generosity of the British Columbia Ministry of Education and the Education Renewal Office, Faculty of Education, University of Victoria, who contributed financial support essential to the publication of this volume.

Special thanks are also due to: The Faculty of Education who saw the need for such a Conference, entrusted the planning and organization to The Connections '95 Committee, and generated the papers contained in this document; the Planning Committee, John Anderson, David Docherty, Honore France, Don Hamilton, Werner Liedtke, Carole Miller, and Mary Sakari, who brought Connections '95 to realization; the Editorial Board, Mary Sakari, Carole Miller, Werner Liedtke, Honoré France, and John Anderson, who made decisions about sequence, content, and editing; Bill Zuk and Robert Dalton who created the attractive cover design for this volume; and Sandra Wicks, Tara Toutant, and Skye Hermann for their devoted efficiency as the editorial assistants.

Finally, none of this would have been possible without the enthusiastic participation of the educators who attended Connections '95.

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Creating the Context: Connections '95

In May 1995 the Faculty held an inaugural research conference, Connections '95. This event grew out of discussions at the annual faculty retreat held the previous year. At that time, faculty recognized the importance of opportunities for discussing and sharing our work. The goal was to create awareness of the varied research interests among faculty members. Input into the planning resulted in a structure that would enable all members to be a part of all presentations thereby encouraging interconnections between departments and among individuals. It was felt that the diverse backgrounds and disciplines represented across the faculty would illuminate the quality of discourse. Drawing extensively from theory and practice, the content of this volume articulates this diversity while illustrating our connections. Connections '95 serves as the first in a series to be presented by the Faculty of Education, University of Victoria.

All departments in the faculty were represented through participants and presentations. The array of submissions depicted the holistic nature of our Faculty of Education. The areas of psychology, arts, curriculum, anthropology, language arts, early childhood education, and preservice teacher education were represented. While not all presentations are included in this volume, the reports are evidence of the interdependence, connection, and heterogeneity manifested in the Conference. The reader is provided with a broad vision of the role of education and what it means to be an educated educator.

The seventeen papers that are included present educational collaboration and change and the process of becoming a professional. Several papers come from traditional research paradigms. A historical view of the importance of tradition within a rapidly changing art world is presented by Bill Zuk and Robert Dalton. An anthropological perspective is provided through Delores Stanley's work.

Two other papers require an examination of our perception of traditional research. Graduate students, under the supervision of Antoinette Oberg, challenge conceptions of curriculum and textual interpretation.

One emerging common theme explores the role of collaborative cultures. This theme is exemplified by Vicki Green in her paper on education within a communal historical context, Lily Dyson's work with local elementary a communal historical context, Lily Dyson's work with local elementary teachers enhancing awareness of special needs children, Kathy Black's documentation of the implementation of a non-traditional timetable, and Margie Mayfield's description of the collaboration of families, community agencies, and ministries in the establishment of family resource centers.

A second prevalent theme examines the developing professional from various frameworks. Margaret Robertson's paper investigates the ownership of learning through portfolios, Ann Marshall and Trace Anderson map the development of counselor trainees, whereas Wanda Boyer and Carole Miller trace the reflectivity of preservice teachers. Carol Marie and Brian Harvey discuss the relationship of learning styles and self direction in a distance education program, Terry Johnson advances a learning characteristic assessment model, and Don Knowles reports on alternative subjective perceptions of adolescents within specific contexts. Marla Arvay and Max Uhlemann make a strong case for the effect of stress on our professional lives while John Anderson offers a reminder of the foibles lurking in all research whether real or constructed. Finally, Marlene Recchi, from the Victoria School District, provides a field based perspective, challenging the reader to continue to examine the role of the researcher and research in a constantly changing educational arena.

The major purpose of the Conference and this publication is to promote communication within the education and research communities. We encourage you to respond to these articles through us or directly with the authors. Continued communication enhances the quality and utility of results. Connections '95 is intended to involve you in this process.

Carole S. Miller and Mary D. Sakari
January 1996

Taiga and Tundra: Art and Culture in a Changing Circumpolar World

Bill Zuk and Robert Dalton

Examining the traditional art of the circumpolar world, this study considers the impact of recent change on the art and culture of indigenous people. The authors recommend strategies and resources for teaching the concepts of tradition and innovation.

> *Our Land is our Soul. From the land we have gained all of our knowledge, our wisdom, our spirit, our past, our life. We see only beauty, peace and a way of being when we are on our land. We call our land Nunatsiaq—the beautiful land. We change as our land changes. (Anonymous)*

One of the most remarkable frontiers on earth, the circumpolar world consists of the taiga, a subarctic coniferous forest zone, and the tundra, a treeless area that is frozen most of the year. These are places that to some are both forbidding and remote. Contrary to popular belief, the circumpolar world has enormous mountain ranges, the largest forests in the world, some of the most spectacular displays of plant life, and an incredible variety of mammals, sea creatures, and birds. Bird life darkens skies during spring migrations every year. In addition to its natural beauty, this vast area stretches over seven countries and covers an area of 10.4 million square miles. Within this enormous land mass lies Siberia which covers eight million square miles, an area larger than both Canada and the United States combined. One third of Canada lies within this zone as well. Over 1.2 million square miles are taiga and tundra, .7 million of this is the Yukon and the Northwest Territories. Kalaalit Nunaat (Greenland) covers .8 million square miles. Alaska occupies .6 million square miles. Sapmi, the territory of indigenous people in Scandinavia (inside the 60th parallel) occupies the tiniest area with approximately .3 million square miles.

The circumpolar world is home to dozens of indigenous cultures with a remarkable history. Its inhabitants include the Inuit, Dené, and Métis nations of Canada; the Inuit of Kalaalit Nunaat; the Eskimo (Aleut, Yupik), Dené, and Tlingit of Alaska; the Sami people of Scandinavia; and the Chukchi, Evenk, Yakut, Lamut, and Koryak of Siberia. The art and culture of these peoples is remarkably rich and diverse and is characterized by resourcefulness, adaptability, and innovation.

In an increasingly interdependent world this vast region is important to us all. In this paper we examine the traditional art of the circumpolar world, we then consider some of the many changes that have occurred in this century throughout the far north, and the impact these have had on the art and culture of the indigenous people. Finally, we recommend educational resources needed to effectively teach the concepts of tradition and innovation as seen in the circumpolar world. Each of these four aspects of the investigation is introduced by means of a question.

Traditional Art in the Circumpolar World

Considering the many and varied cultures of the circumpolar world, some means must be found to deal with a topic as broad as the traditional art of the region. To accomplish this, the art form of costume has been chosen because it is an important aspect of each of the cultures. What is the significance of traditional costume in the culture of indigenous peoples of the circumpolar world, and what does it tell us about both wearer and maker?

Clothing is obviously essential for survival in a cold land, but for the indigenous peoples of the far north, clothing was more than that. It was an extension of self, an assertion of who and what they were. At the same time wearing clothing made of skin, fur, or feathers, served to connect the human with the animal world. In some instances it could even confer supernatural powers on the wearer.

Clothing also served to distinguish members of one group from another. In the Canadian Arctic, for example, there are noticeable differences in the design of parkas from the Inuit of the eastern Arctic to those of the western Arctic. Within the group, clothing serves to differentiate individuals by gender. Women's clothing is designed differently from men's and frequently has more decorative elements such as embroidery.

The interdependence of men and women was evident in the making of clothing. Men hunted, providing the raw material for clothing while women used their skills in cutting and sewing. From this interdependence came cooperation and mutual respect. Traditional clothing appeared in Inuit legends as a means of conveying moral values and social customs. Stories about clothing that is outgrown, worn out, given away or borrowed, serve to teach important lessons about belief and behaviour (McGrath, 1993). The importance of Inuit costume is evident in the care taken to make it and also in the extent to which it is embellished beyond the purely functional aspects of protecting people from the elements. Remarkable design features

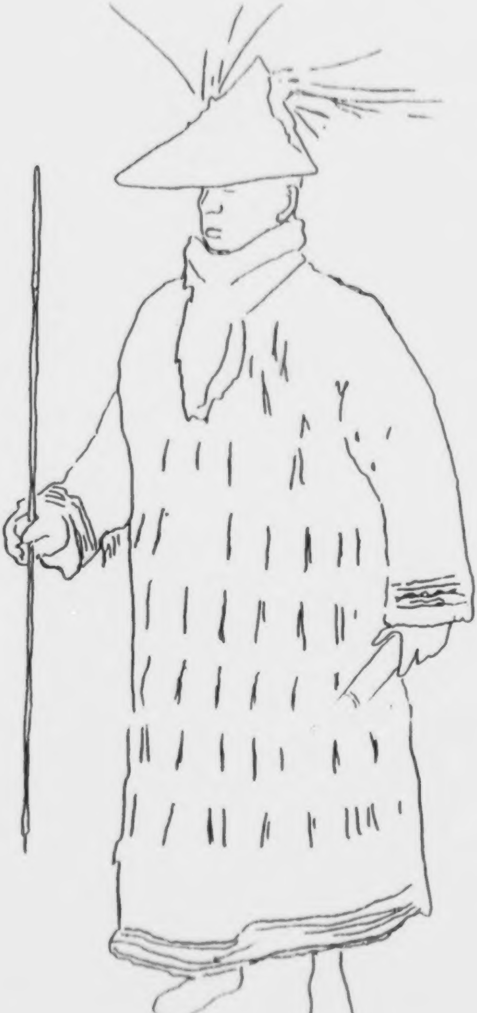

Figure 1. Aleut Hunter's Costume.

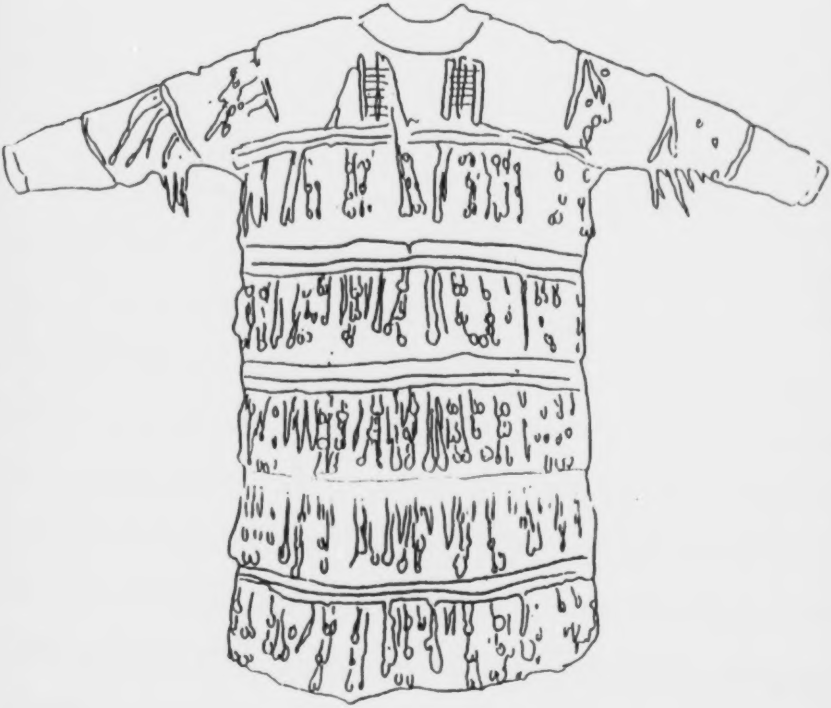

Figure 2. Koniaq Birdskin Coat.

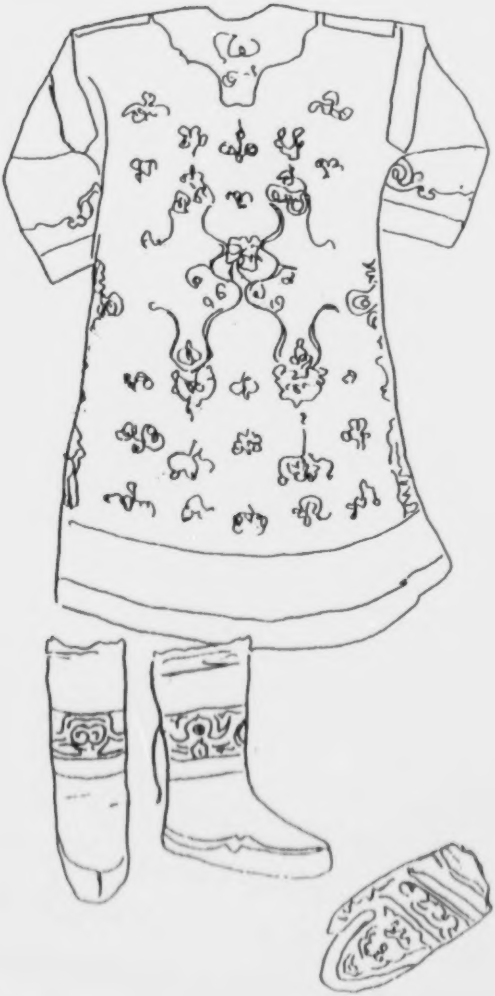

Figure 3. Nanai Woman's Embroidered Fishskin Robe.

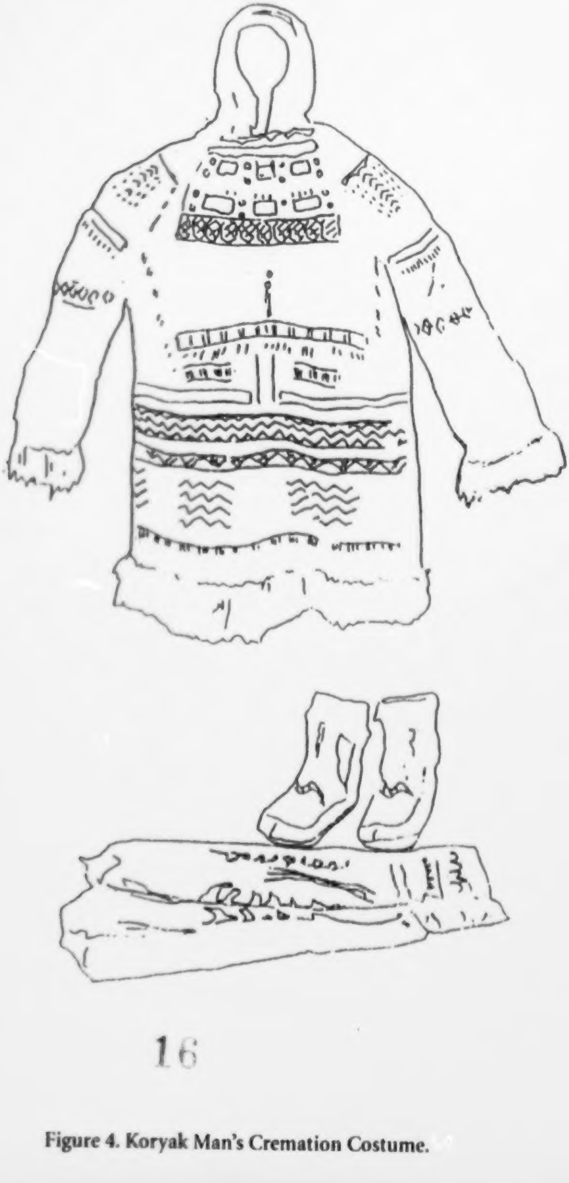

Figure 4. Koryak Man's Cremation Costume.

are introduced through use of various materials and methods of construction.

The making of traditional garments in various cultures of the circumpolar world presents an incredible and impressive visual record that demonstrates expertise in design and sewing, versatility in using local resources, and ability to combine materials in ingenious ways. **Figure 1** shows an Aleut costume worn by high-ranking hunters or chiefs. The waterproof gutskin *kamleika* is ornamented with coloured yarn, appliqué designs, and hair embroidery. The accompanying conical bentwood hat, with its abundance of sea lion whiskers, indicates the hunting prowess of the owner. Large glass beads of Chinese origin ornamenting the hat, are a symbol of wealth and successful trading ventures.

Figure 2 shows a Koniaq (Kodiak Island) ceremonial costume sewn from hundreds of iridescent pelagic cormorant neckskins. The beauty of the garment is enhanced and accentuated by red and white tassels of dyed skin and gut and long fine hairs and strands of yarn blended into the seams. Delicate white cormorant flank feathers, finely embroidered seam designs, and white fur trim add to the detail and craftsmanship. A cloth collar shows the influence of the trading era, evidence of contact with outside societies.

A spectacular garment shown in **Figure 3** is the Nanai salmon skin coat worn as a summer garment by peoples of the Lower Amur basin in the Maritime province of the Soviet Far East. Its stylistic decorative influence is characteristically Chinese. This is evident in both the cut and embroidered ornamentation depicted in the back view of the garment. Ornamental designs arranged symmetrically over the surface are stitched-on appliqués of dyed salmon skin The stencil designs, representations of animals from Chinese mythology, have been handed down from mother to daughter as a way of preserving the art form.

A discussion of the richness of ceremonial costumes would not be complete without reference to the Koryak of the Kamchatka region of Siberia. **Figure 4** shows a man's cremation garment which comes complete with leggings, boots, hat, and a quiver, each made from the fine white fur of reindeer fawns. The remarkably detailed garment is prepared months in advance of a person's death and is sewn secretly at night. If the garments are seen or completed before a person dies, it was believed death would come to the relatives. The days between death and cremation are extremely busy. As the women sewed long into the night, the men played cards on the body of the deceased who was on public view.

Whether it is a baby carrying parka of a young Inuk mother in the Canadian Arctic prepared from pieced bits of delicately coloured fur, the leggings of a Greenlandic teenage girl being sewn with intricate border designs to attract a young man, or a brightly coloured hat being appliquéd by a Sami grandmother for her new grandchild, each garment has a different story to tell.

The Impact of Change on Cultures of the Far North

What changes in this century, economic, political, and social are taking place in the circumpolar world?

Because it seemed such an inhospitable land to Europeans from more southern regions, conquest and colonization occurred later in the Arctic than most other places in the world. Until the beginning of this century traditional life had changed very little throughout much of the north. In this century however, the lure of natural resources has led to a considerable movement into the north by other people and equipment: mining operations, oil and gas exploration, lumber, and other resource extraction operations. Roads, airfields, and pipelines have sprung up across the north along with whole new communities to maintain and service this economic activity. Life has changed dramatically in this century for the indigenous people of the Arctic and subarctic.

Traditional life, which may involve a nomadic existence, one dependent on hunting or herding, is rapidly changing. Increasingly, indigenous peoples are settling in larger permanent communities and there is a growing dependence upon trade with the south for equipment and supplies. Communities are not as isolated from one another as they once were, nor are some as self-sufficient.

Earlier in this century intense nationalism forced connections among groups within national boundaries while isolating them from contact with others outside those boundaries. Recently there have been changes in the political landscape of the circumpolar world. The thawing of relations between superpowers has made it possible for indigenous people to travel more freely and restore historic connections among northern regions. Ethnic groups are asserting their identities in this postcolonial era and in some cases, have been successful in gaining independence from colonial rule. The indigenous people of Greenland have severed ties with Denmark, renaming their land Kalaalit Nunaat. Yakutia is a territory that has been established for the Yakut people of Siberia. And in Canada a newly formed and semiautonomous region called Nunavut has been created in the eastern Arctic. Native self-government is a growing trend across the circumpolar world.

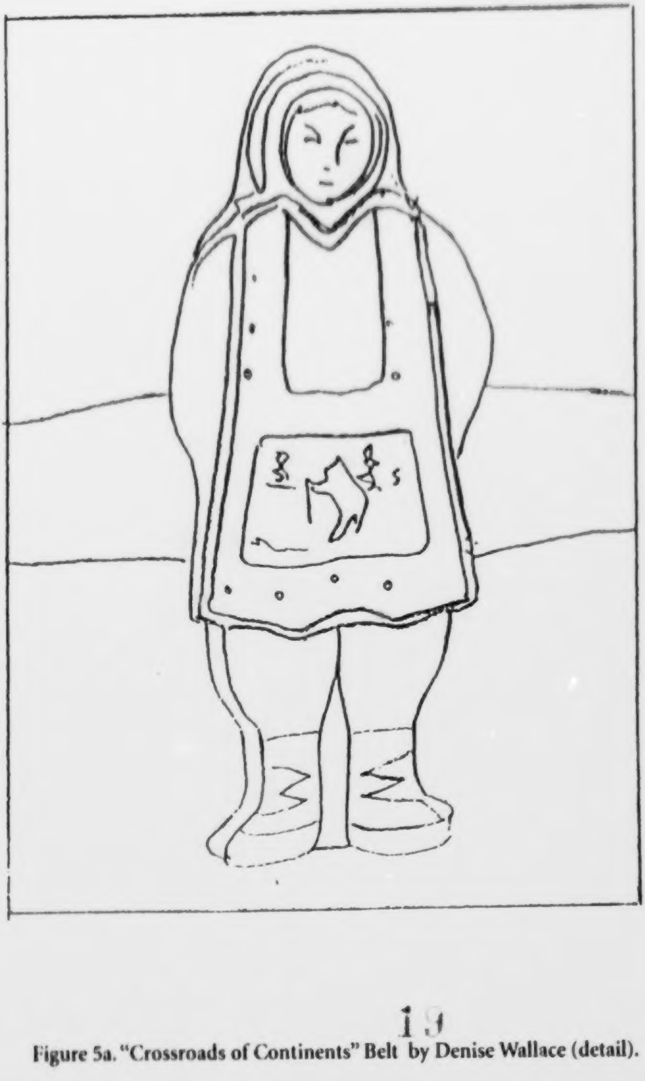

Figure 5a. "Crossroads of Continents" Belt by Denise Wallace (detail).

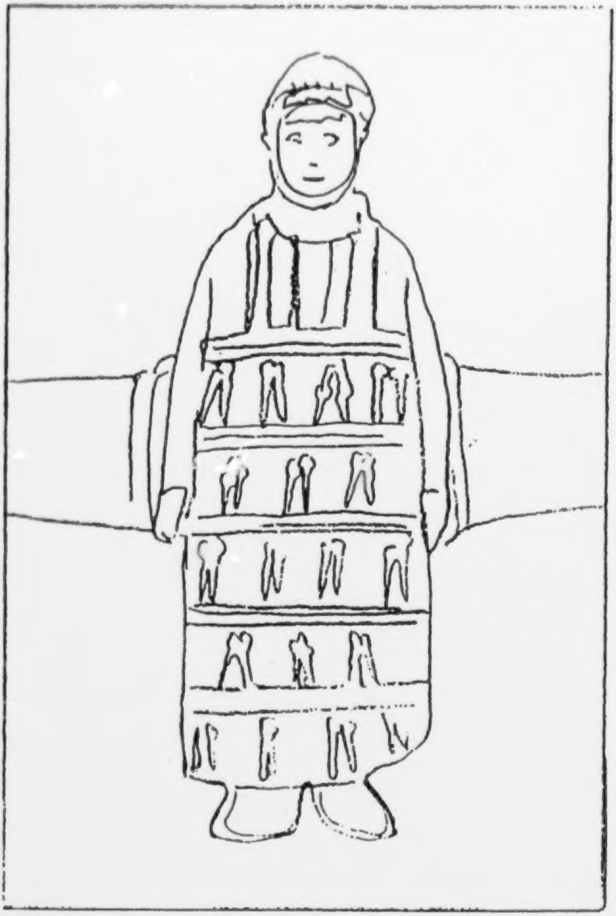

Figure 5b. "Crossroads of Continents" Belt by Denise Wallace (detail).

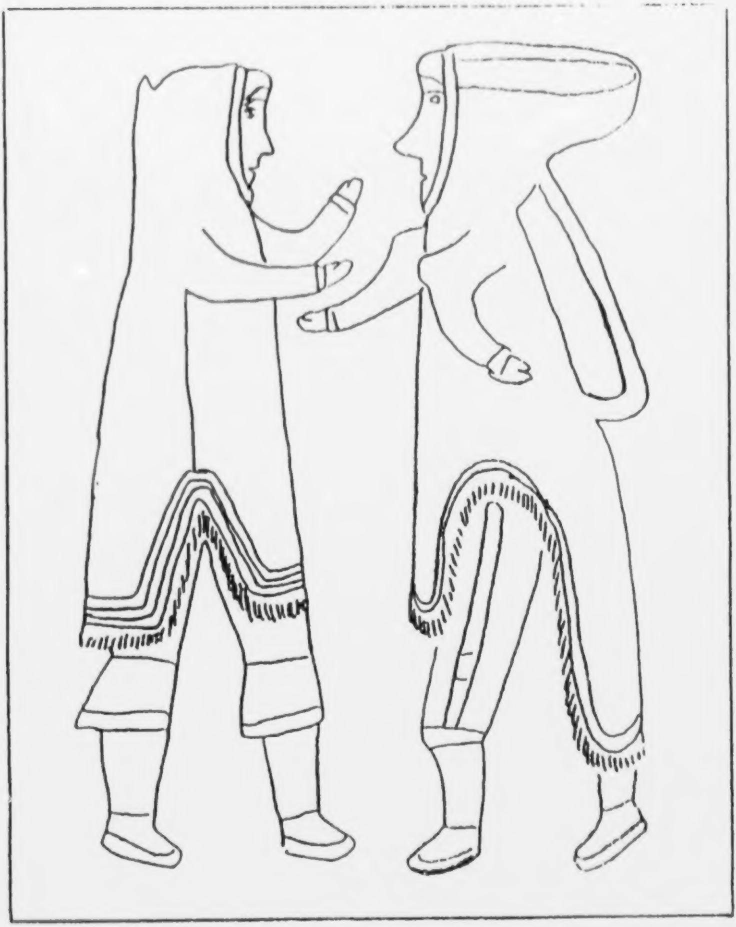

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Figure 6. "Man and Wife" Linocut and Stencil by Simon Tookoome.

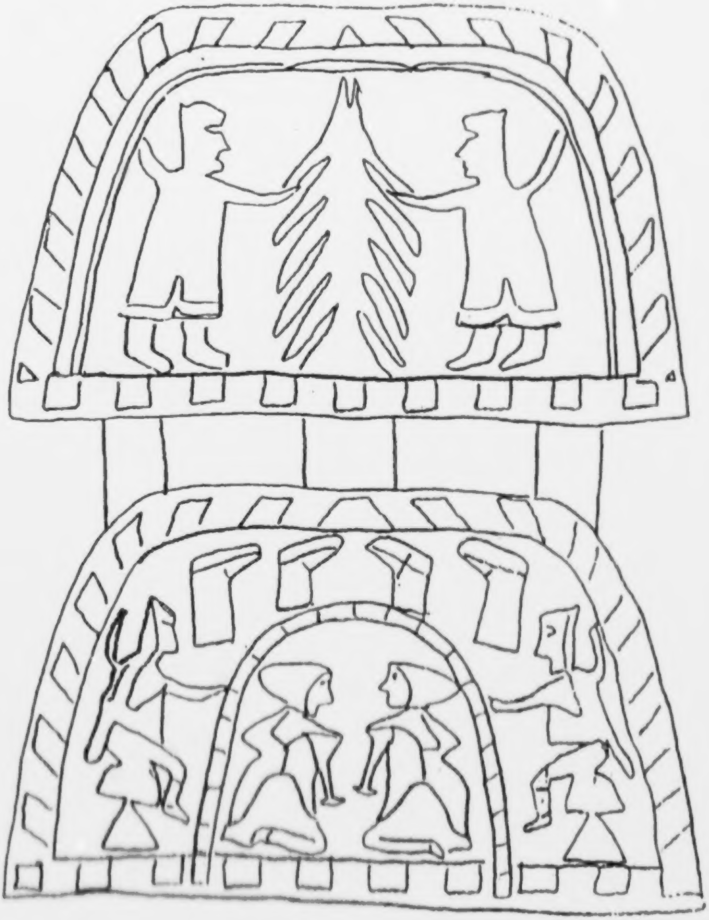

Figure 7. Untitled Felt and Embroidery by Jessie Oonark.

These major and rapid economic and political changes have, at times, had a devastating impact on social life. The doors have been flung open to a host of influences and problems that were previously unknown and these have torn at the fabric of family and community life. Artists have a role to play in helping their communities and culture in adapting to meet the challenges of their changing world.

Innovation in Art of the Circumpolar World

How have the traditions of garment making evolved and adapted in response to changing cultural conditions?

Hand sewn clothing may not have the status it once had in many cultures of the taiga and tundra. In some instances this traditional art form is gradually disappearing, however certain aspects of it continue. Images of traditional life and clothing are reinterpreted in contemporary Western art forms such as printmaking and sculpture. These fine art media have connections with traditional forms of clothing construction in cutting and sewing, they also have their roots in other traditional forms such as carving. The techniques of cutting, sewing, appliqué, and embroidery are continued in craft items and fabric artworks created for sale. These provide an important link with the past and also offer a much needed boost to the local economy. These traditions are maintained through techniques and they are also preserved through the imagery. This is done not merely for reasons of nostalgia, a romantic longing for a return to simpler, happier times. Artists maintain these traditions because art is an important means of conveying society's important beliefs, attitudes, and values. Art is a means of preserving a rich heritage which contributes to cultural identity and pride. Through the infusion of new ideas and techniques innovation revitalizes traditions, breathing new life into costume making and other traditional art forms. This can be readily seen in the work of numerous contemporary indigenous artists from the circumpolar world, specifically Denise Wallace (**Figures 5a and b**).

After viewing an exhibition of artwork entitled "Crossroads of Continents", Denise Wallace began an ambitious project to portray the spiritual continuity of indigenous peoples of the north. In collaboration with two other artists, she created a belt consisting of ten individually carved figures representing the diverse costumes of Siberia, Alaska, the Yukon, and British Columbia. Each item can be detached and worn separately as a pendant or collectively as a belt. The belt serves as a fine symbol of unity in that when joined, it has no beginning or end. The project required 2,500 hours to complete and represents the strong feelings of connection that exist among the ethnic groups across the vast distances of the circumpolar region.

Denise Wallace's artwork is one which can be worn. It is a costume piece which deals directly with the subject of costume. In this "costume about costume" the artist has created a contemporary piece which owes a great deal to tradition. Other artists have featured costume in contemporary artworks which are purely for contemplation; drawings, prints, paintings, and sculptures in the Western fine art tradition. In Simon Tookoome's stonecut (**Figure 6**) the woman's parka, with its distinctive tail flap and its spacious hood for carrying an infant, can be seen on the right. The man's parka, shown on the left, is noticeably different in design.

Stonecut is a relief printmaking method first introduced to Cape Dorset in the eastern Canadian Arctic in the 1960's and was subsequently adopted in other Inuit communities. Drawings are transferred to soapstone and the areas that are to remain white are carved or recessed by chisel and mallet. The image remains standing in relief. The stone block is inked with a roller. Paper is then laid on the inked stone and pressed down to pick up the ink. When the print is removed the stone can be re-inked for the next print.

Another popular printmaking method which has connections with garment making is stencil printing. The shape of an animal or figure may be cut from sealskin or card. The stencil is then placed on paper and ink is dabbed or stamped around the edge with a large brush, although in some instances ink may be applied within an area left by the cut-out shape. When the stencil is removed the coloured image can be seen sharply defined on the white paper or fabric as was the case with the scroll designs applied to the Nanai costume (**Figure 3**).

It is not only the images of traditional costume that have been retained but also the methods of garment making. Although printmaking processes are comparatively new, for centuries Inuit artists have cut and sewn animal skins and carved in stone, ivory, and bone. These have provided a basis for experimentation with newer methods. Innovation occurs only in the context of tradition, changing and adapting for a purpose. These continue in new ways.

The traditional techniques for cutting and sewing of natural materials are employed in contemporary works by women of Baker Lake and elsewhere in the Canadian Arctic. Jessie Oonark's untitled work (**Figure 7**), using felt appliqué and embroidery serves as an example of this innovation in traditional garment making. "A prominent aspect of traditional Inuit life was the dichotomy of gender roles and the interdependence of men and women. Even clothing design was gender-specific with inherent design references to the roles of men and women" (Driscoll-Engelstad, 1994, p. 11). Oonark often frames her work within the outline of an igloo. In the fabric work shown in **Figure 7** a double igloo is shown, the upper one containing two male figures with a fish vertebrae between them. The lower igloo depicts two kneeling women holding traditional women's knives or *ulus* while boots are arranged around the outer edge of the igloo. In this fabric work, the men are concerned with hunting while women preside over the domestic realm. Jessie Oonark has used materials that were not available to Inuit women centuries earlier. Another nontraditional aspect of the work is that it was produced for display and sale in stores and art galleries far from her home in Baker Lake. Thus the artwork continues to preserve the heritage of Inuit art.

Throughout the circumpolar world artists are maintaining the traditions of their cultures through the use of new artforms. In retaining their heritage and identity, they are also moving forward to respond to new challenges and opportunities.

Preparing Appropriate Educational Resources

What educational methods and resources are effective in teaching students the concepts of tradition and innovation as well as other ideas related to art and culture in the circumpolar world?

The circumpolar world is home to an incredibly rich diversity of indigenous cultures. Many educational resources fail to acknowledge this diversity and therefore create a false notion of cultural uniformity. A common problem with educational resources, as well, is one that presents the traditional culture as though it were locked in a romantic past. Cultures are ever changing, responding to new external forces while renewing themselves from within. Beliefs and customs are continually being modified. Multicultural art resources in today's classrooms should reflect this point of view. This means not only studying the tradition, but also discovering how the culture adapts and changes: in other words, innovation. A key factor is selecting significant works of art that have gained public recognition and that show continuity between tradition and innovation. This continuity can be discovered by examining how older art forms relate to those that follow. If a close correspondence exists between the old and the new, the basis for innovation is more readily detected.

Comparative picture investigation is an important way of coming to understand the old and the new. One method invites students to examine paired reproductions of earlier and later developments of artwork and also to compare older and newer examples of one artist's work. Artwork that is clearly related to a tradition provides a basis for understanding how a culture revitalizes itself. Once students have gained expertise in comparing artwork within a particular culture, they can be encouraged to produce or create their own examples based on the innovative ideas of the contemporary artist. Allowing students to creatively alter existing ideas helps them begin to understand innovation. Discussion, critical inquiry, and creative hands-on experiences provide a comprehensive way of examining works of art from one or many cultures such as those in the circumpolar world.

This study sets the stage for investigating tradition and innovation using only one of many possible lenses, that of costume. It reveals how traditions interact with innovation in a variety of ways to give meaning and purpose to the present. These ideas can be applied not only to indigenous cultures of the circumpolar world, but also to other societies as a way of gaining deeper insight into how change and adaptation operate.

End note: Figures 1 through 7 are drawings of the original artworks rather than photographs of them.

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The Perspective of the Other: Differences and Equality

Dolores Waldenström Stanley

The central focus of the "perspective of the other" is defined within an anthropological context. The author presents personal research experiences to demonstrate how similarities and differences in behavior and thinking can be explained and understood without judging or condemning, and without feeling judged or condemned.

"I have made it my concern
to understand actions of human beings." (Spinoza)

When I try to explain to students what Anthropology of Education is concerned with, I define the central focus as being the *perspective of the other.* Trying to see everyday life experiences through the eyes of others and trying to understand history as experienced by others, without judging or condemning, and without feeling judged or condemned, is essential to learning and teaching.

Living amongst people who spoke a different language, dressed in a different way, ate their meals at different times, and responded to one another in a way different to what my family and I were accustomed to, was a fundamental element in my personal socialization. Consequently, the process of understanding different peoples became a part of my way of life. Coming to terms with cultural diversity is more than a challenge, it is a creative, political, and cultural process in recognizing and realizing the history we stand within, share, and become part of (Stanley, 1995).

The past is the perspective from which I define *the other.* This implies that the past remains present in the context of life, yet at the same time receives a new significance from the present (Kümmel, 1981). The past is metaphorically seen as "a way of thinking" (Zwicky, 1992), an analysis of our origin and historical condition. To understand our way of life implies understanding others and their way of life. Even though the discovery of the other is an individual process which begins anew every single time, it nevertheless has its history, that is, its socially and culturally determined forms (Todorov, 1982).

When speaking about being different, *Anderssein*, categories are being established which determine who belongs and who does not (Radtke, 1992). We and the others develop into categories relevant to education. Social institutions such as schools, as well as individual students and teachers need to come to terms with the problem of belonging, *des Dazugehörens*, or not belonging, *des Nicht-Dazugehörens* (Radtke, 1992).

The following questions stand in the forefront: Is similarity or difference a precondition for equality? In our striving for social equality are we focusing on the similarity amongst people and peoples?

Tzvetan Todorov defines cultural discrimination as a process in which differences degenerate into inequality, and equality degenerates into uniformity (1985). Everyday life experiences seem to confirm this process and seem to reflect the understanding, as Erich Fromm formulates it, that equality today means uniformity and not unity (Fromm, 1976).

My personal path to the discovery of the other has been primarily through studying the Colonization of the Americas. The European explorers and colonizers of the fifteenth and sixteenth century mapped the world and the minds in a way that conditioned western societies to believe themselves superior. The concept of civilization has since been an expression of the self-consciousness of the West (Elias, 1982). The study of sixteenth century history and of those who set out to colonize the land and the souls of peoples lead me to the contemporary issues which were linked to the past of those who resisted and survived political and spiritual colonization.

According to anthropological theory, a sound knowledge of humankind can only be achieved by studying distant as well as near cultures, and ancient as well as modern times (Haviland, 1983). A major part of my research has been motivated by the wish and by the need to understand what happened 500 years ago. The learning process inherent in the study of the past is the opportunity to reflect on our values and the values of others and to raise the question of alternative values (Stanley, 1995).

A guiding question for both the anthropologist, as well as the educator is: How are similarities and differences in behavior and thinking to be explained and understood? This question leads us as educators to the area of Cultural Anthropology and in particular to the discipline of Ethnology. Fundamental to Ethnology is the systematic description of contemporary cultures. The ethnologist lives amongst the people of a specific community and learns about their way of life by observing and participating in everyday life activities. This process resembles childhood socialization and enculturation.

Participant observation is the foundation of anthropological research and a method that emphasizes the perspective of the other. The world view implicit in the ethnographic experience emphasizes the importance of the native not only as the actor in the scene, but also as informant and furthermore, as instructor (Spindler, 1988). Within the concept of the Ethnographic World View the native is the expert (Spindler, 1988). The question becomes, how does this understanding translate into an educational situation or experience?

My answer to this question lies in a significant encounter with Doña Rufina, a highly respected elder and shaman in the village of San Miguel de Tzinancapan in the mountains of Puebla in Mexico. As a young graduate student studying for a doctorate, I was at the beginning of my ethnographic field research. During the first two weeks of my stay in this Nahua village I walked through the streets of the village, met mothers and fathers, grandmothers and grandfathers, and shared numerous meals with generous and kind-hearted families. Throughout these days, and during visits, I always carried a camera and a tape recorder but I never unpacked them. I had come to realize what ethnography was all about: walking into the homes and lives of families and questioning them about their way of life, their thoughts, their attitudes, their behavior, their feelings and more.

It was not the people around me nor the informants with whom I met who influenced my way of thinking, but the change of perspective which forced me to question the ethics and the implications of my study. I became increasingly aware of the historical context of anthropological research. In principle it was a more subtle expression of colonial culture (Thomas, 1994). Even though my study was driven by an interest in analyzing the continuity of cultural discrimination rooted in colonialism, I could not help discovering a colonial dimension in my own approach. Coming from the University where this ethical component had not been discussed, I felt incapable of going through with my research work, as I had no answer to my conflict of conscience. The highly respected elder and shaman in the village of San Miguel de Tzinancapan did, however, have the answers to my questions.

One evening whilst sitting at her hearth Doña Rufina helped me understand my role as ethnographer from within her culture (Stanley, 1995). In her role as an elder and a shaman she had worked with an anthropologist and was familiar with the techniques and equipment used in an ethnographic study. Sitting at her fireplace she asked me if I carried a tape recorder and a camera in my turquoise blue bag. I replied "Yes", and Dõna Rufina continued by asking, "Why do you not use them?" I explained to her that I felt it to be wrong, that I had no right to infringe upon the people. I had no right to intrude into their homes and lives with my questions, tape recorder, and camera. Dõna Rufina questioned, "Do you not enjoy your work? Do you not wish to continue your work?" My reply was clear and affirmative, as I was not able to deny the strong urge to study the Nahua culture.

As my own grandmother may have spoken to me Dõna Rufina explained, in a very gentle and caring voice, that the only true concern was my attitude. As long as I felt and showed respect in my approach towards the people and their culture the use of photographic and recording equipment would not infringe upon the individual. At the end of the evening Dõna Rufina was talking to me about her work and life as a healer and I was recording my first interview. By verbalizing the implications of the field situation from the perspective of a native, Doña Rufina led me out of my ethical struggle.

The attempt to understand people in terms of their own perspective, as well as trying to understand one's own culture from the outside, is essential to anthropology and education alike. The understanding becomes pedagogical as soon as it is oriented towards the development of the other; as soon as the other becomes the focal point. Pedagogical understanding means to approach the other and to begin a process of dialogue. Pedagogical understanding defines a process of interaction; a process of self-development within a relationship to others.

The binding commitment to essential similarities between people while maintaining an equally strong commitment to their differences (Stanley, 1995) is a process which Johan Galtung (1978) defines as "reciprocal dependency". Dialogue, as defined by Paulo Freire (1979), and reciprocal dependency are inherent qualities of human understanding.

Based on my field work and theoretical research the concept of equality is defined as reciprocal dependency, and may be understood as a dynamic interaction of differences. It then becomes apparent that we can only have equality if we have differences (Stanley, 1995). The concept of difference is defined as a reciprocal process between the individual and the other. The change of perspective is a prerequisite to understand and redefine difference as a value inherent in relevant relationships and self understanding. Finding a way to define and understand differences between peoples as a value in itself, allows us to go beyond the simple acceptance of differences. Learning and teaching based on difference and equality as structure explains self understanding and the understanding of the other as one process. Understanding the other within the context of differences breaks the expectation of having to be the same in order to be equal (Stanley, 1988).

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Curiouser and Curiouser

Sue Taylor, Antoinette Oberg, Heather Coey,
Bill Levis and Trish Main

This paper examines the assumptions that support classroom practice and the question: What is foundational in Curriculum Studies? This exploration is presented by the authors through story telling, reflective writing, third person writing, direct metaphor, indirect metaphor, icons, and key words.

Cast

Sue	Sue Taylor
Cheshire Cat, voice, door	Antoinette Oberg
Tweedledee	Heather Coey
Tweedledum	Bill Levis
Narrator	Trish Main

This imagery was originally performed as a class presentation in a graduate level course, Foundations of Curriculum Studies. The concept has been modified for presentation at this forum. The idea arose from a reading in class of a section of Alice Through the Looking Glass. In the story, Alice struggles to find her way out of the forest. On hearing this, I recognized that Alice's struggle was remarkably like my own as I tried to understand the field of curriculum studies and my place within it.

Over the last two terms I have been gradually incorporating the idea of interpretation into my frame of reference. As I came to realize that there were numerous possible interpretations, I was forced to make a paradigm shift. Put that way it sounds simple and painless, but in reality, it was a very challenging process. There were many stops, starts, and wrong turns. One of the things that kept me working was the knowledge that other people in the class, although using different vehicles of exploration, were experiencing similar difficulties.

Narrator sits on the edge of the forest.
Sue is wandering in the forest of curriculum studies.

NARRATOR: Sue was lost. Lost in the forest of curriculum studies. All around her she heard questions.

From somewhere deep in the forest, comes a disembodied voice.

VOICE: What is curriculum? How do you know? What is taken for granted? Who decides? What are you interested in? Whose interests are served?

Sue looks around, puzzled.

NARRATOR: Sue thought that to find her way out of the forest she had to answer these questions. She didn't like feeling lost. She didn't like these woods. She recognized these woods from the story so she wasn't surprised when she ran into Tweedledee and Tweedledum. Since she had heard Alice's story she knew what to do. She introduced herself and she also shook their hands.

Tweedledee and Tweedledum, hooked arm in arm, skip into view.

SUE: Hello, I'm Sue.

TWEEDLEDEE & TWEEDLEDUM: Hello.

SUE: Can you tell me how to get out of here? Can you tell me how to find some answers?

TWEEDLEDUM:You asked a question, therefore you should look in the room labeled ANSWERS. *Pointing toward a door marked ANSWERS.*

TWEEDLEDEE: Contrariwise, she must ponder the questions first.

Tweedledee and Tweedledum exit, leaving Sue lost and alone.

NARRATOR: Sue didn't like Tweedledee's response at all. It was confusing.

Sue paces back and forth, looking perplexed.

SUE: Ponder the question. What good would that do? It doesn't make sense. Why would I ponder questions like: Can you tell me how to get out of here? Can you tell me how to find some answers? I want the answers!

NARRATOR: Sue thought that Tweedledum's response made much more sense. So she went over to the door labeled ANSWERS. She tried the door. It was locked. Sue was alarmed. She had opened lots of answer doors before and always found what she was looking for. Why didn't this one open? Was there a password she didn't know? A key she didn't have? She decided to adopt a strategy of waiting.

SUE: Well, this door will have to open sometime. Otherwise there would be no point to this course. I'll just sit down and wait.

Sue sits down to ponder.

NARRATOR: And wait she did. For days and even weeks. Sometimes she knocked on the door, sometimes she pounded on it. Sometimes she just waited. She was sure that if she just waited long enough the door would open and she would find the answers to all her questions. Occasionally she took a break and wandered away. Each time she returned the door was still closed.

Eventually, Sue began to feel frustrated. The door was there and it seemed logical that it had to be open sometimes. But it never was.

She wondered if she was just missing the times that the door was open. She tried varying her schedule in an attempt to catch the door when it was open. But the door remained locked. Sue's frustration increased. Here she was in a Master's program, for goodness sakes, and she was spending all of her time stuck in this dumb forest. And how was she supposed to pass her courses if she never had the answers? She felt really pissed off. The door said ANSWERS didn't it? But if it was never open, how was she ever supposed to get any—answers, that is?

Time passed. One day something provoked Sue to remember what Tweedledee had said.

The voice of Tweedledee rings through the forest.

TWEEDLEDEE: Ponder the questions first.

NARRATOR: And then Sue noticed that there was another door, just a few feet away, marked QUESTIONS. She hadn't noticed it before because she had been so focused on opening the door labeled ANSWERS. She went over to look at the door and it startled her by saying...

DOOR: Welcome. I've been waiting for you.

NARRATOR: Sue tried the QUESTION door and found it unlocked. She opened it and was flooded with questions. *(A long list of questions accordions through the doorway).* She realized that the questions were not only her own, but were also those of her classmates. The question at the top of Sue's list was:

SUE: Why am I so preoccupied with finding answers?

Sue sits down and begins pondering the questions.

NARRATOR: Sue began to get more and more fascinated with the questions. She wasn't finding any answers but she was thinking a lot and not wasting her time just sitting in front of a closed door. Still she had to check that answer door a few times a day just in case it was open. It never was.

One day, while she was still in the forest pondering her questions, she heard a voice. Startled, she looked up and saw the Cheshire Cat sitting in a tree.

A huge grin appears in the trees.

CHESHIRE CAT: How are questions and answers different from inquiry?

The grin disappears.

NARRATOR: Sue didn't know what to make of that. She had thought that the aim of graduate studies was to find answers and besides, she liked finding answers because it meant that the problem was solved and doubt was eliminated.

SUE: So what does the cat mean by inquiry? Isn't that what I have been doing?

NARRATOR: As she thought about what the Cheshire Cat had said she became curiouser and curiouser and curiouser. She was curious that the cat's question had prompted her to ask questions. The pattern was now "question/question," rather than "question/answer." Was this what the cat meant by inquiry? Perhaps inquiry was a better term because it acknowledged that no answer was ever final and that all one could do was reveal never-ending layers of insight.

She pondered the idea of inquiry some more and decided to place a new sign on the questions door. The new sign said INQUIRY. And she took the sign off the answers door and left it blank. She was very pleased with all of this because she thought she might have found the answer. Sometimes, even though she is in a Master's program, Sue isn't very bright.

All of these ideas sounded quite good but Sue didn't find it easy to stay with inquiry. Inevitably, she would find herself back pounding on the door that had been marked ANSWERS. This especially happened when things got difficult in her life, like when her aunt had a stroke and she had bad news about her own health. At those times, all she really wanted to do was get out of the forest and find someplace else to live. She couldn't help thinking that if she could just find the answers then things would get better. Gradually, she realized that the answers were never forthcoming so she decided she had better just stay with her inquiry.

She wrote and wrote and wrote and wrote her inquiry. Once a week there were gatherings in the forest with other people who were also writing their inquiries. Sometimes they read to each other from what they were writing in their journals.

Narrator exits. Trish, Heather, and Bill enter the forest and sit down in a circle with Sue. They exchange greetings.

HEATHER: You know, I've been working on the same thing for eight months.

TRISH: Humph! Usually, in grad school, you get a better ratio than eight months to one question!

BILL: Yes, I'm having trouble seeing the forest for the trees.

SUE: It is difficult, isn't it. Who wants to read first?

HEATHER: I will. *(She reads from her journal.)* I am looking at what I consider to be a deeply satisfying lifestyle and where teaching fits in. And one layer of this inquiry is asking, "Am I motivated by wanting to have an impact on my students?" I don't want to be motivated by this. That would mean that what I do, I am doing primarily for me rather than for my students.

NARRATOR: Sue was lost. Lost in the forest of curriculum studies.

Sue meets and shakes hands with T-Dee and T-Dum

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Even if you look at the idea of wanting to help them, that implies that I know what is best for them and have an agenda for them that squeezes out their agenda. I don't like that much either. What I really want is to just be, like Pooh in *Tao of Pooh*. Not that I want to be like Pooh but that I just want to "be." Then, if I let my students just be, and just genuinely care for them and set up the best opportunities I can for potential learning experiences, then what will be, will be. I've just given it as much of a chance as I can for it to be something good. I feel good about looking at my teaching this way: settled, unflustered.

The smile appears in the trees.

CHESHIRE CAT: What does it mean to "just be"? Why do you use the word "just"? What is the significance of the word "be" as you use it? How do you explain how "just being" allows you to follow the curriculum?

The smile disappears.

BILL: *(Reading from his journal.)* I view my life as a jigsaw puzzle, but unlike most jigsaw puzzles where you work from the border in towards the center and finally finish with a somewhat central piece, the jigsaw of my life started in the center and works its way outward. Each new adventure, incident, event has impact that adds another border of some description to the outside edge of the puzzle. It is never done but it is always done, each newly added piece to the outside is not a missing piece but a discovered and enhancing piece. There is no finished picture to rush toward completing; it is evolving. The central pieces can change, but the new piece simply overlays the old piece which was there and in that way the foundation for the whole puzzle continually changes.

The smile appears in the trees.

CHESHIRE CAT: What is the significance of the difference between building your puzzle from the inside out and building it from the outside in? Specifically, what is the significance in terms of authority, responsibility, knowledge, and knowing?

The smile disappears.

TRISH:*(Reading.)* Although I haven't done it for years, I used to knit a lot. I mostly knit sweaters and most often for other people. I always started with an idea of what I wanted to construct and then looked for a pattern which came close. I never made up a pattern or created my own design. I always followed someone else's because it was safe and predictable.

My inquiry this term has been much like knitting a sweater without a pattern but by closely examining and reliving the creation of previously knitted sweaters. The materials were mostly familiar but the goal was not given. The product was to be for me and not someone else. Attempts to create something new were sometimes rewarding and sometimes frustrating. From time to time, what had been constructed had to be pulled apart and the same materials had to be used to rebuild something new or different. The desire for a pattern remained constant but, as time passed and successful fumblings were rewarded with new and pleasing creations, that desire became less intense.

The value of our class time together has been the provocation to approach my knitting differently. It seemed that we were all working with the same raw materials. Some of us created sweaters with wool but some wove them and some crocheted. Sometimes the products were sweaters, sometimes they were scarves. Sometimes something completely different and unexpected was created, something like a boat perhaps, but I was always made to really look at the materials and the methods of others and to see the possibilities. I can no longer imagine knitting in the same way as I used to do it.

The smile appears in the trees.

CHESHIRE CAT: What is the root of your desire to know what the final product will be before you begin the project? As you let go of this desire, how does your work change? How do the results change?

The smile disappears.

Everyone says good-bye and Trish, Heather, and Bill leave.

SUE: It is now the end of term and I have realized that the important thing about inquiry is that it helps me to look for meaning. That really does seem more important than looking for answers. And one of the things I wrote in my journal was that I wanted to find meaning in my own life. But even though I am now committed to inquiry, I still occasionally want answers. And that has me back checking the blank door. I just can't forget that the sign on the door had once said ANSWERS. You just never know.

The End

Reading a Tango: Multiple Interpretations of Text

Antoinette Oberg
Sue Taylor
Carol Marie Harvey
Penelope Murray

Using four modes of inquiry – hermeneutics, semiotics, ethnography and ideology critique – the authors present four interpretations of text to describe a dance of dialogue between student and teacher.

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Preface

Interpretation is multi-layered. We come to a text with our own history and engage with it as informed individuals who reform our subjectivity as we speak, write, and reflect on the text. We can't help it.

There are many interpretations because, as we engage the text, connections occur and recur. We can't prevent it. To stop the process, not to pay attention to what affects, infects, deflects us to what is happening, is to separate us. To come together deepens our understanding of our interpretation of both ourselves and the text at hand.

Meeting together in a graduate course, Interpretive Inquiry, we worked through many methods of interpretation from social action research to feminist critique to phenomenology. For this presentation, we each chose a method of looking at text that suited our own personal location. We met. We wrote. We thought. We presented. As we prepared we found that categories leaked to blend new horizons. As each interpretation developed reverberations occurred resulting in shifts in all the interpretations. What began as a cacophony of disconnected interpretations eventually, through repeated displacements, gained strength and depth.

The process of preparation for this presentation began in our class. The continuation of our work has enriched our ability to value the subjectivity of our response to texts as the only place to begin our inquiries.

Presentation

At the front of the room is a free-standing projector screen. Behind it stand four presenters, only their feet visible to the audience. The music, "Tango to Evora" (McKennitt, 1991), plays. Each member of the audience has a copy of the presentation proposal. The title is projected on the screen. As four voices from behind the screen read the proposal aloud, the music fades but does not disappear.

VOICE ONE: Reading a Tango: Multiple Interpretations of Text

VOICE TWO: Reading a text is neither simple nor straightforward. The horizons of the reader intersect with the horizons of the writer. Words signify beyond the author's intention. Texts are wrapped up in culture and are read through and alongside other texts. The meaning of a text varies depending on the mode of interpretation used.

VOICE THREE: In this presentation, we will give four different interpretations of the text of a classroom event. Using the lenses of hermeneutics, semiotics, ethnography, and ideology critique we will give just a glimpse of the world in front of the text. While we stand behind our interpretations, we make no claim to authorship.

VOICE FOUR: The text we will interpret is called *Samantha*. It is a description of a real life interchange between a teacher and a student written and read by the teacher, Linda Tate.

On the screen is projected a single word, TEXT. A tape recording of Linda Tate reading the account of Samantha *begins. Approximately 20 seconds into the tape recording, the word TEXT is overlaid with a transparency of a couple dancing a tango.*

TAPE RECORDING: Samantha was in one of her moods. She was yelling about me, not really at me. She never looked at anyone; she would just yell about this being "stupid," "I hate it!" and "We've always gotta do something!" When her comments became more personally directed, I thought about just letting them go. It wasn't all that important and it really wasn't worth getting excited about. The moment this flashed through my mind, I felt my body react. I stiffened, held out one hand like a stop sign and the other over my heart. "Stop!" I demanded in a trembling voice. "I can't let you talk to me like that. You are verbally abusing me and if I let you, then I can't think much of myself. I have to like myself and if I like myself ~~I~~ won't let you do this to me. I have to take care of my feelings. I have to take care of myself." I was still trembling and could hardly believe what had come out of my mouth. I don't know why I was reacting so dramatically. It was relatively minor by comparison to other days. Samantha could hardly believe it. The class could hardly believe it. I could hardly believe it! There was a brief moment when we all gazed at one another. Samantha picked herself up and slowly passed by me. She whispered, "I'm sorry." I was shocked that she was leaving, as I hadn't asked her to, and I was equally shocked that she would apologize.

Weeks later, I was standing chatting with a group of students when I felt a slight brush against me as someone passed by me. I knew this familiar pass. I felt who it was before I could hear the low voice murmur, "You're cool." I instantly knew I had to confirm my feelings. I turned slightly to glance over my shoulder. Samantha was barely glancing back. We both acknowledged one another with a half smile. She was gone. I wondered to myself when I had transformed from being a *bitch* to being *cool*. I was certain it was nothing I had done and I was equally certain that my status could revert just as suddenly as it had before.

Samantha and I still "tango" every once in a while, but we do it with less emotion and more respect.

To date, I remain "cool".

The music swells as the tape recording ends. A new transparency appears on the screen. It says, HERMENEUTICS: WHAT IS THE/A MEANING IN THIS TEXT? The first speaker comes out from behind the screen and reads. The music *fades. Approximately 20 seconds into the reading, a second transparency overlays the current one. It shows a different couple dancing a tango.*

VOICE ONE:A Hermeneutic Interpretation of *Samantha:* What is the/a meaning in this text?

This is a story about the intersection of two different kinds of power in a student-teacher relationship. The most obvious and pervasive kind of power is institutional power, which can be defined as the "possession of control, authority or influence over others" (Webster's, 1963, p. 666). Linda has institutional power by virtue of being the teacher. The way schools are organized, the teacher is designated as the one who has influence over students' learning and control over students' behavior. Institutional power is "power over".

Samantha reacted against this power when she yelled out that the work she was supposed to do was stupid. Students often react against teachers' efforts to control them but it is a losing battle. Teachers always have more institutional power than students. If students don't comply they are expelled. Both Linda and Samantha knew this. Linda knew she could ignore Samantha's outburst because although it was annoying, it was not a threat to her superior position. Samantha knew the consequence of her outburst and initiated it herself – leaving the classroom before she was asked – implicitly acknowledging Linda's superior position.

However, something else happened between Samantha's eruption and her exit. Another kind of power came into play which temporarily reversed the power relation between Linda and Samantha. This was personal power: that ability to produce an effect in others, to touch another deeply.

Personal power is based in the person, not in the institution. It is "power to" rather than "power over".

Samantha's words affected Linda deeply. We can see this in Linda's reference to them as abusive, and in her spontaneous act to shield herself from them placing one hand over her heart and the other out in front of her. In this moment, Samantha had more power than Linda did. Linda acted quickly to equalize the situation. "Stop!" she yelled. Linda's heartfelt response deeply affected Samantha. She stopped abruptly. She and Linda looked at one another in shock. In that moment they each had an equal amount of personal power and they didn't know what to do, or how to act. The deeply personal is rarely comfortable territory and hardly ever in a classroom.

When Samantha left the room she defused the situation, but did not uncomplicate it. Her exit was the next logical move in the game defined by institutional power. But the rules of institutional power were not the rules Samantha was following. Nor was Linda enforcing them. Samantha left of her own accord and apologized on the way. She retained her personal power. Indeed, she continued to affect Linda personally, as we see in Linda's disguised pleasure at hearing Samantha say that Linda was cool. In terms of personal power, Linda and Samantha became equals, which meant that the power moved back and forth between them. However, in terms of institutional power, they never were and never will be equals. No matter how much Linda might like to share her institutional power, the sharing is always at her behest and therefore, she is always in the superior position. The intersection of these two forms of power, both working simultaneously to shape the relations between Linda and Samantha, created a complicated pattern which Linda appropriately called a TANGO.

As the speaker leaves the stage the music swells. On the screen appears, SEMIOTICS: WHAT DOES THE WORD 'TANGO' SIGNIFY? The second speaker comes out from behind the screen and reads. The music fades. Approximately 20 seconds into the reading, a second transparency overlays the current one. It shows another couple dancing a tango.

VOICE TWO: A Semiotic Interpretation of *Samantha:* What does the word, "Tango," signify?

What is the tango and why did Linda choose this word to describe her tangles with Samantha? The tango is a ballroom dance. It is highly stylized and the partners pretend that they are oblivious to each other. But underneath, passion and sensuality simmer. Does that not sound like the relationship between Linda and Samantha?

Another aspect of the tango is its inflexibility to intervening variables. Coolness is required by the leading partner. Linda does not remain cool and explodes under the pressure and disrupts the progression of the dance. And make no mistake, Linda, by virtue of her role as the teacher, is the leading partner. The explosion changes things. Samantha recognizes Linda's individuality and respects her for it. Thus, Linda's coolness is returned and the dance can continue.

It should also be noted that Samantha took a time-out when she left the classroom. The usual method for requesting a time-out is to signal the letter T. And the word tango denotes the letter T in the phonetic alphabet.

In the past, the tango has been viewed as a disreputable dance. This may be the result of its origins in the barrios of Argentina. The Victorians called it "the dance of moral death." Teenagers are also often seen as disreputable, so it seems Linda's use of the word, TANGO, is an appropriate choice.

The speaker leaves the stage, the music swells, and a new transparency appears on the screen. It says: ETHNOGRAPHY: WHAT CULTURAL NORMS ARE BEING FOLLOWED OR VIOLATED IN THIS TEXT? The third speaker comes out from behind the screen and reads. The music fades. Approximately

20 seconds into the reading, a second transparency overlays the current one. It shows a fourth couple dancing a tango.

VOICE THREE: An Ethnographic Interpretation of *Samantha:* What cultural norms are being followed or violated in this text?

Cultural norms differ across cultures. This is true for cultures within larger cultures, such as schools within society. In the text of *Samantha,* the intersecting demands of a number of cultural norms give rise to conflict. Samantha's self-imposed, voluntary apology and "time-out" after the confrontation with Linda violates two cultural norms: adolescents are unable to practice self-control and adolescents must be seen as "cool" within their peer group.

Samantha's violation of cultural norms can be seen to be occurring in response to Linda's own violations of norms. "I was shocked that she was leaving, as I hadn't asked her to, and I was equally shocked that she would apologize." The norms of the teacher-student relationship call for Linda, as the teacher, to be the initiator and controller of her students' behavior. The cultural norms for Samantha, however, are themselves in conflict. For Samantha as an adolescent, the call is for rebellious, uncontrolled behavior, especially in the face of adult supervision. For Samantha as a student, the norm calls for passive, controlled submission to adult supervision.

Samantha is responding to Linda's violation of the cultural norm that teachers must always be in control, of the students, of the transmission of knowledge, of themselves. Linda is shocked by her own words, "I was still trembling and could hardly believe what had come out of my mouth," and by her own behavior, "I don't know why I was reacting so dramatically." Linda sees her reactions, both verbal and non- verbal, as extraordinary, outside the culturally defined knowledge about how a teacher should behave with a rebelling adolescent. However, Linda too faces conflicting cultural norms. In addition to the norm for teacher control in the classroom, Linda is behaving in response to the norm of the larger culture which calls for her to maintain her self-control. At the same time, she acknowledges the cultural norm that she, as a woman, must take care of her own feelings; she must take care of herself.

It would seem that Samantha, as an adolescent woman, is attempting to follow this very same norm in her own unique way and recognizes this common goal in her acknowledgment of Linda's *coolness.* In their TANGO, Samantha and Linda find themselves dancing through the tangle of conflicting cultural norms.

As the speaker leaves the stage, the music swells. On the screen appears, IDEOLOGY CRITIQUE: WHAT IS TAKEN FOR GRANTED AND WHAT IS EXCLUDED IN THIS TEXT? The fourth speaker comes out from behind *the screen and reads. The music fades. Approximately 20 seconds into the reading, a second transparency overlays the current one. It shows the final couple dancing a tango.*

VOICE FOUR: An Ideology Critique of *Samantha:* What is taken for granted and what is excluded from this text?

"I" is for an ideology inundated by the myth of individualism. I must fend for myself. I am alone. I must be responsible. I am in control. I have authority. I am the teacher.

Ah, there you are. There I am.

You just let yourself go. I've never felt that before, your pain, your cry for help. So, you too feel the oppression of this institution. Of course you can't do it by yourself. We need each other. Feel this new space we've created. You just gave me something, a part of you. Now I can respond. Now I can look at you without feeling diminished. I see myself in you. We are connected, not separate. We are embodied, not disembodied. Stay caring. Stay open. Stay honest and let go. That's cool.

It's your turn to lead now, Linda.

The speaker leaves the stage. The music swells and on the screen appears a transparency which says: IT'S YOUR TURN TO LEAD NOW, inviting questions from the audience.

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Establishing Collaborative Research within a University of Victoria Partnership Program at Okanagan University College

Vicki A. Green

Providing an analysis of student responses to active learning experiences with historical artifacts, this study documents collaborative research experiences among educational groups including a classroom, a school, and the Okanagan University College. The research included a cooperative project involving the Historic O'Keefe Ranch.

Introduction

Historic O'Keefe Ranch in the Okanagan Valley of British Columbia is the kind of small museum described by Ken Hopkins (1981) as an "entity unto itself, valid, real, lively and significant" (p. 32). The staff relate to the people in the community directly and personally, and new ideas ignite the imagination. Active learning within this historical context, stimulated by the spirit of collaboration, provided the participants of the three studies described below with an enhanced sense of community. The curator and I were interested in developing a research base to record active historical learning supporting responsible goals in an informal environment. Paul Hilt (1992) explained that action-oriented problem solving involving "real issues" sends a message to students that their time is used in a meaningful way (p. 255).

The three studies discussed in this paper took place between September 1991 and April 1995. The Historic O'Keefe Ranch enabled three different groups of learners, supported by a larger collaborative community, to inquire beyond the classroom.

Artifact in Action: *How do grade six and seven children respond to historical artifact to develop questions?*

The curator of the museum agreed to open three storage rooms filled with artifacts to the grade six and seven students. The children toured the storage rooms at the ranch. They discussed what artifacts appealed to them and formed interest groups based on their attraction. On subsequent visits each group selected artifacts from established categories: tools that brought animals and people together, household items, sports equipment, the O'Keefe children's artifacts, and elixirs and medicines. This natural curiosity motivated the groups to pose questions among themselves.

Later the children were quiet during the artifact sharing with other groups. Questions were asked, comments were made, and demonstrations provided extensions and understandings.

At school, each group investigated its artifact collection more closely. The teacher commented, "It's the first time they've shown an interest in doing extensive reading on a topic." Fortunately, background material was not difficult to find. Community people joined in the investigations. A local pharmacist helped with the medicines and elixirs. Parents and grandparents became intrigued with the questions the children asked. The children used catalogues and newspapers from the school and community library to find answers to their questions. They wondered what other children might contribute to their investigations.

The children created small pilot studies among the different grades at their school to find out what other age groups might do with the artifacts selected. After observing the artifact collection, children in the primary classes made models and drawings. They completed data collection sheets recording colour, use, and approximate age of selected artifacts. The medicine and elixir group had the grade four children make up commercials for the medicines selected for study. In addition, they created a play for the primary children and had them complete a *Do and Don't* chart about using medicines.

Intergenerational Collaboration

One small group of children representing each of the artifact interest groups selected artifacts to discuss with senior citizens. This form of oral history created an opportunity to access more easily the sharp, long term memories nested in the experiential learning of seniors.

We placed the artifacts on a table in a recreation room in the seniors' complex. As the five children looked on, the eight seniors discussed the artifacts with each other. Later the seniors turned away from their discussions and included the children in their conversations. Observing the seniors' behavior, I realized that the prior practice of having children interview seniors about their lives had been inadequate. Previously the children had asked open questions such as, "Tell me what it was like when you went to school?" In this encounter with the seniors however, the artifacts situated their narrative recollections in context and their stories were more specific. The children came away from the interaction with memorable stories linked with artifact.

Summary

This initial study demonstrated collaboration among children, their teacher, parents, community helpers, the elderly, and the curator to develop children's questions about material objects representative of local history. The questions from the children were supported and extended through the interests, stories, and expertise of adults.

Archives and Artifact: ***How are grade eight, nine, and ten female students informed about women's lives through historical artifact?***

The second study also involved collaboration within a context of historical artifacts. The participants were female secondary students whose focus was to inform themselves and others of women's lives on the Historic O'Keefe Ranch. They also chose their own topics, investigated them, shared their findings and reflected on the process of their experiences.

The eight female secondary students explored the lives of Rosie O'Keefe, (dates unknown), Mary Anne O'Keefe (1850-1899), Elizabeth Greenhow (1854-1941), Elizabeth O'Keefe (1877-1929), Peggy O'Keefe (1902-1989) and Mary Elizabeth O'Keefe (1904-1988) using archival accounts including documents, pictures, ledgers, newspaper articles, photographs, artifacts, and buildings. Their public representations included historical fiction, historical research reports, a video presentation, an oral presentation, a scrapbook, and a chart using a mandela and a Venn diagram. The Ministry of Education, Gender Equity Branch provided a grant to produce a reflective video tape on this project.

Background

Two decades ago Watts (1972) remarked, "Women have not had a good press in history, and the range of stories about women, suitable for any particular age-range and which provides the teacher with sufficient material, is quite limited" (p. 72). Today, this pedagogical practice is more prevalent than many assume. As Egan (1990) stated, "It seems the social pressure through most of culture's history have encouraged middle class male imaginations to locate a sense of self and anticipated power and multiple opportunities. Such pressures persist and our literature and institutions tend to support them" (p. 163). Rich (1979) exclaimed, "Women need concrete artifacts, the work of hands, written words to read, images to look at, and a dialogue with brave and imaginative women who came before us" (p. 205).

The existence of a number of accounts compiled by Elizabeth O'Keefe provided the rationale for selecting O'Keefe Ranch for these female students to investigate. Material artifacts in the O'Keefe house, the log house, and the church represented a form of female expression. The project took place on weekly over a three month period in 1992 and 1993. Eight students were selected from applications and interviews. Cheryl, Erica, Lisa, and Flora were in grade ten, Robyn and Emmy in grade nine, and Kate and Amanda in grade eight. Data was collected through observation, discussion, and interview.

Findings

These students' voices described the experience of their historical investigations and research findings. Lisa framed her response in relation to others in the group:

> We all came out here expecting very different things; therefore, it has provided very different things for us. From what I see, for Robyn, it has provided information and a wealth of atmosphere to write a wonderful story. For Cheryl, a place to dig into the past, form a theory and then prove it with fact. For Erica, Amanda, Kate and Emmy a chance to learn in-depth about someone who really piqued their interest, someone they can really look up to. For Flora, a place to express herself through a medium she really enjoys. I finally realized that I was learning about myself, who I was, what I wanted and how I like to do things. In school we are told to do it our own way, in our own words, but the teacher says, '...or incorporate these five ideas.' So you do it, hand it in and everything is fine. This terrified me. What if I do it wrong? What if no one likes it? It took a long time for me to realize the world wouldn't come to an end. At least I have identified the problem and am better equipped to handle it.

Robyn explained the process that she used to write her historical fiction:

> The main components that I used to create my story were first Mary Anne O'Keefe, her life, and everything she went through. I feel a lot of times that the ranch is more associated with Elizabeth O'Keefe than Mary Anne. She had a large role in this ranch. Secondly, I associated her home. There are magical things there. You can smell things, sense things, and feel things that you just can't get from reading a book. I finally associated the death of her infant son who was only three weeks old. I guess the tragedy still remains and you can feel it in the house.

Flora described her experience:

> When I first came to the ranch we got to go through the house and we got to go all through the rooms that you wouldn't be able to go through if you were just on a tour. It was "wow" with all the barriers taken down, and that's when I really knew I wanted to focus on the house. It was mainly the house, the objects. I like working with cameras, with video, so I did a video and told who lived in the rooms. I spent a lot of time in there by myself.

Erica explained:

> I chose Peggy's scrapbook. She was one of the daughters of Elizabeth O'Keefe. I kept looking through it, but finally decided to create a scrapbook. There wasn't much fact to find out about Peggy. I based all of my assumptions from the scrapbook. How she acted, what she did, the kind of sense of humour she had. In 1918, Peggy was the same age as I am now. She had a great sense of humour.

> When she finished high school, she went to St Anne's Academy in Victoria and became a nursing nun. Peggy was different. I got to know her through the detail in the scrapbook.

Cheryl said:

> I chose Elizabeth Greenhow and how she lived out here in the Okanagan Valley. She was born in 1854. She was good friends with Mary Anne and also knew Elizabeth. Cornelius O'Keefe was her uncle. She came out from Fallowfield with Cornelius and Mary Anne. Thomas Greenhow was Cornelius O'Keefe's partner. She was kind of mysterious. It took me a long time to find out about her. I really had to do a lot of digging. I really like the kind of person she was, like how strong she was. After Thomas Greenhow died, she ran the ranch. She took care of her two children and took care of her two nieces. She was a really strong person. To organize myself, I wrote down things I wanted to know about her. I looked in the archives, in books, at pictures, in the Vernon Daily News. I found out that she offered money for the hospital. She was on the Board of different places. She really took over my life. I kept thinking about her, and I'd wonder how she would handle stuff. I'm glad I did this.

Amanda and Kate described their findings:

> We chose Mary Elizabeth O'Keefe. She was the daughter of Elizabeth O'Keefe and the younger sister of Peggy O'Keefe. She stood out in her picture. She looked very relaxed and down to earth. In the pictures, the other children seemed perfect, but she's not like that. She's very much her own person, riding horses, wearing men's clothing, helping with the ranch. She didn't go away to school. She ranched. We speculated that she stayed on her own free will. Also, she had a disability. We sort of think it helped her break free of being 'a lady' because people didn't really expect much of her.

Emmy explained:

> I chose this because it was so different. We came here and found out about everyone. I had to read and dig and I didn't know what I was going to do. I found out about Rosie and she just grabbed me. The intrigueingness (sic) of it: was she there? How she felt? I found out all I could. She was from the Okanagan First Nations so I went into the Okanagan. Like what they ate, their religion, the clothes they wore so I could understand a bit of what she was like...I went back to Rosie in the end. It is a big mystery...there is a lot of rumour and speculation about what happened to her. No one knows.

Summary

The students preferred to read, return to a building or artifacts, talk with one another, and then read again. They posed questions, made inferences and decisions, structured their time, and included insights into their own learning and the collaboration shared with other members of the group. These female students defined the questions and the processes of their historical research for us.

Literacy Through Artifact: *How do adult basic education students use historical artifact and interviews to develop skills in listening, writing and reading?*

Although the third study enjoyed a collaborative element the focus was on providing an opportunity for adult literacy students to expand their communication skills through exploring artifacts. The uniqueness of the subject matter for these students, coupled with their collaborative efforts, not only yielded positive changes in communication skills, but also enhanced their appreciation for the difficulty of their task and bolstered their self-esteem.

Six adult literacy students identified their interest at the O'Keefe ranch. Each student interviewed a volunteer with knowledge about the topic and transcribed the tape onto the computer with the help of their adult basic education instructor. Carl interviewed a blacksmith, Evelyn found out about the general store and horse-drawn carriage days, Kelly discovered clinker-built boats, Carolyn investigated sidesaddles; Steve described hay-making, and Laurie interviewed a cowboy. Through multiple repetitions and computer technology, students reviewed the data sets of their interviews resulting in the publication of a book of stories for use by literacy groups across British Columbia.

To determine the efficacy of the interview process, the transcription of tapes, the writing process, and the public presentation of their findings, I conducted small group interviews with these students. These adults experience difficulty reading and writing, and reinforce the importance of collaborative support for success. Their efforts contributed to the historical knowledge about selected artifacts and information obtained from the volunteers.

No one found the interview process difficult, they collectively reported:

> It wasn't hard, just ask one question and let them ramble. They knew it so well they could tell everything about it. It was easy to collect. It was really hard to put onto the computer. You really had to listen. You had to play it over and over again until you knew the tape by heart. You got to listen to it so many times you finally got it. You learned and understood what he said. You could hear the tape during the writing part.

The students commented about the difference they found working for marks compared to this project:

> This is more powerful than marks. We were not worried and we accomplished something. We didn't have to fight for a mark. We didn't have to compete. There is a bond that happened in this room. We could help one another. We are all one; we are not separated. The focus is more on the learning. You taught yourself, each other, everybody was going through the same thing. We were not correcting mistakes but fixing it so we could publish it. The book is getting published; we finished a goal and did it together. It was easy to ask for help.

Individually, students recounted their learning. Carolyn said:

> It was a challenge. I started and couldn't stop learning about it. I knew there was more. It was like a half sentence and I had to find out to finish it. There is a background to everything you see or touch. You learned how to learn and how to write and edit a book.

Evelyn explained:

> I had to change words around and figured out what he said to make it sound better. I had to break it down in syllables to sound it out. Now we know how to get out of it what they are saying.

Carl replied:

> I have trouble with speech and it helped me listen. Everybody says my speech has improved. I got to sketch and draw which I'm good at and now people will know it because my drawings are in the book.

Laurie explained:

> We became part of history ourselves. We had to get it down on paper, go over it and sound it out then use the computer to check.

Steve mentioned:

> He talked to me about hay-making and I could remember stuff from when I was a kid. I practiced my reading and writing. It is important for the kids to know what we've found out.

Summary

Many small communities support volunteer literacy groups. Literacy is defined as the skills necessary to acquire and use reading, writing, listening, speaking and representing. These students learned to trust their own inquiry and from this strength developed collaborative skills to trust each other and themselves as active learners. A grant received from the British Columbia Ministry of Skills, Training and Labour and the National Literacy Secretariat supported this collaborative project with the Adult Basic Education program at Okanagan University College and The Historic

O'Keefe Ranch. The curriculum model developed for use with these students is available to literacy groups, museums, schools and colleges. The manual describes opportunities for communities to expand local knowledge obtained in written form while the students learn and practice fundamental skills of literacy.

Conclusion

Students' learning developed in collaboration with one another. The institutions involved supported student learning through small group collaboration. As each group worked toward a common goal based on curiosity, imagination, and interest, participant diversity was reinforced. Learning was not confined to text and bound by artificial outcomes. As well, learning that participants experienced continued beyond each study. For example, newspapers, radio, and television reporters interviewed the female secondary students about their collaborative learning on women's history at the Historic O'Keefe Ranch. The literacy project has provoked attention from people from as far away as Nova Scotia requesting information to organize greater community participation in literacy projects.

There is much written about collaboration and building collaborative research communities. In my experience most of the information is structural and descriptive and explains how power, materials, money, and information were negotiated and shared among participants. In practice, however, the collaborative sharing included many members of the community who supported and encouraged their students efforts. Collaborative communities are built by people who share diverse strengths and common goals that enhance opportunities for individual choice, freedom, contribution, and friendship. The value of collaborative research included a greater awareness, support, and involvement on the part of community members beyond the classroom, an extension of topics within the community, an enhancement of student self-esteem and risk taking, and an opportunity for students' self-directed learning and the spirit of inquiry.

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The Processes of Researchers – Teachers Collaboration: Reflections of a Researcher and Two Teachers in a Project for Promoting Social Integration of Children with Special Needs

Lily Dyson, Ron Rothnie, and Rod Dryden

Documenting the process of teacher-researcher collaboration, the researcher's analysis and teachers' reflections are discussed in terms of the processes of collaboration and conflict resolution. Also presented is the impact of collaboration on the implementation of a program for integrating children with special needs in an elementary school.

A current trend in education research is teacher-researcher collaboration (Goodlad, 1987). The collaboration builds on a new belief that places explicit value on both practitioners and researchers' perspectives of what is taking place in the classroom (Applebee, 1987; McDaniel, 1988-89). Teachers and researchers bring different perspectives and experiences to the collaborative relationship, and "it is this difference that makes collaboration particularly so productive" (Applebee, 1987, p. 714). Many gains for the participants have been reported (Dyson, 1993). For the researchers, the gains include research grants for continuation of the project and a broadening of their teaching content at the university (Dyson, 1993). Teachers gain greater understanding of the school context and increased benefit from collegiality (Oja & Pine, 1987).

While university-school collaboration in program development and teacher training programs is common, teacher/researcher collaboration in conducting research is less practiced. Yet, there are issues taking place in the school that could benefit from systematic solutions through collaborative research. Furthermore, because of the paucity of literature on teacher-researcher collaboration, the processes involved in successful collaboration remain unknown. Many aspects of the interactions that take place between collaborators and the results of collaboration are yet to be delineated. Of special value would be the perceptions and experiences of the major stakeholders (the teachers, the researcher, and the students) as they experience and reflect on the interaction in the collaboration. Diverse capacities and perspectives may result in viewing collaboration differently. Delineation of the different experiences could help understanding of the collaborative process and its planning and implementation.

This report describes the processes of collaboration through the reflection of the researcher and two teachers working on a project for promoting social integration of children with disabilities in an elementary school setting. The following issues are discussed: (1) how the collaboration was initiated; (2) the nature of the collaboration; (3) conflicts that arose or existed; (4) benefits for major stakeholders.

Background

The present collaboration between a researcher and two teachers began with a pilot project for promoting social integration of children with disabilities in an elementary school. In response to the request from an elementary school for assistance with the integration of these children, the researcher helped the school develop an intervention program that evolved into a research project. Subsequent funding permitted the project to continue into the second year and included the participation of an additional school. All but one teacher from the six in the pilot study continued their involvement the second year with two new teachers joining the project. The project, termed *Friend-Making*, has expanded to other schools. At the time of this report, the project is in its fourth year of operation and it is the third year that the two teachers and their classes have participated. The continuous support of the two teachers for the project are indicative of a successful collaborative relationship.

The Research Project

The project, *Friend-Making*, aimed at promoting social integration of children with disabilities, was prompted by repeated research findings suggesting that children with disabilities experience social isolation and rejection by peers (Conderman, 1995; Haager & Vaughn, 1995; Larrivee & Horne, 1991; Stone & LaGreca, 1990). A series of workshop programs was developed to teach elementary school children about disabilities.

The Research Team

The team consisted of an associate professor from the Faculty of Education and graduate and undergraduate research assistants. The participating teachers collaborated with the university research team by facilitating the implementation of the workshop programs and providing feedback and suggestions for the programs. Two of the participating teachers became members of the research team and co-authors. They were teaching grade 6/7 and grade 7, respectively. One was also the vice-principal of one of the participating schools.

Processes of Collaborating: As Experienced by the Researcher

The main research goal was to promote the social integration and acceptance of children with disabilities. After the initial approval to conduct the study by the principal and the special education teacher, the researcher distributed the invitation to participate in the program to teachers in the school. Included in the invitation were explanations about the nature of the project and the workshop programs to be delivered. A series of meetings was initiated for the teachers who agreed to take part. The purpose of the meetings, which were held throughout the project, was to keep the teachers informed about each stage of the project and discuss issues related to the programs delivered to the students. The meetings were treated by the researcher as a routine and considered to be an important part of the research procedures.

Similar workshop programs were repeated yearly in classes taught by the two teachers who continued to volunteer in the project. Collaborative meetings were held between the researcher and all the teachers who took part in the study.

Processes of Collaborating: As Experienced by a Grade 6/7 Teacher

I was teaching a grade 4 class when I first received a letter describing the program and inviting teacher participation. Upon my acceptance, the purpose of the study, as well as the procedures and activities were explained during a formal meeting. Subsequently, a plan was formulated for the students and the classroom teacher. I had the opportunity to choose from a set of workshop programs teaching awareness of disabilities. These workshops were then delivered to my class at different times. Throughout the collaboration, there were opportunities for input which included suggestions, criticisms, additions or deletions of activities.

Programs

While I did not attend all the workshops, I observed several. One of them, Trust Games with Blindfolds, explored blindness and the method of guiding blind people. Other workshops included Braille reading and simulation glasses to promote an appreciation of varying severity of vision loss. In the years that I had a child with special needs in my class the workshops were particularly worthwhile. One child had epilepsy and at times was the target of laughter. During the course of the workshops the child had a seizure, this time the other students remained quiet and tried to be helpful. There was no teasing or laughing. In my opinion, the children would not have been so kind without having participated in the *Friend-Making* project.

Collaborating: As Experienced by a Grade 7 Teacher

In 1993 a number of teachers in the school where I taught grade 7 indicated an interest in a project to promote social integration of children with special needs. Collaboration began soon after and a list of possible workshops were discussed at a meeting. During the first meeting we discussed workshops that would be appropriate for a grade 7 class; questions were answered about the make-up of my class and about children with special needs in the class; and the general attitudes of the children toward special needs and the inclusion of children with special needs in class and school activities were discussed. At that time there was opportunity for input about the process to follow. A schedule was set up for class visits.

Programs

The initial workshops that were used to enhance the awareness of handicaps seemed to be popular with the children. The activities in these workshops engaged students in a variety of tasks as they explored the realities of visual impairment, hearing impairment, wheelchair mobility, and autism. The students especially enjoyed the wheel chair activities and those related to gaining insight into visual impairment.

In late 1993, a booklet was compiled under the topic *Friend-Making* which consisted of children's comments related to their learning about special needs and friendship. The booklet included reactions from students in grades 2 through 7.

The focus of this year's *Friend-Making* program for my grade 6 class has centered around cultural diversity and social integration. A letter was sent home to parents introducing the project as one that helps children understand different needs and helps children with special needs make new friends. The whole class of 31 children participated in the program. There were three classroom visits by the research team which consisted of graduate and undergraduate students, who each held a teaching certificate. The format for the visits was well thought out and, generally, pupil participation was good. The questionnaires were well set up and thorough and the majority of the pupils seemed to enjoy completing them. The Show and Tell activity using an object representing a unique culture and talking about it was a popular activity.

Problems and Conflicts – Researcher's Reflection

In the three years of collaboration with the teachers, very few problems or issues arose that caused friction. There were, however, two instances of special note. One concerned the delivery of the workshop. At a meeting in which the researcher sought feedback from the teachers, one teacher politely informed the researcher that although he was happy with workshops in general, he felt that the facilitators could display more enthusiasm when teaching. Perhaps a lack of everyday teaching experience in the facilitators led to their uneasiness while conducting the student workshops. Acting on the teacher's advice, the researcher spoke to the facilitators. At the end of the program, improved teaching techniques used by the facilitators were noted by the teacher and this information was shared with the researcher.

A greater problem occurred that was directly related to the researcher. A scale was to be administered to evaluate the state of social integration of children with disabilities. The Social Distance Scale (Larrivee, 1979) measures different degrees of social interaction among children. Children are asked to rate each classmate in terms of a degree of interaction such as, "I would like to invite _______ home" or "I would like _______ to leave me alone." While the scale was shown to teachers before the program began, the teachers had apparently not thought about the possible implications until the day of administration. Two teachers were uneasy with the scale since it asked children to rate different relationships with their classmates. The researcher responded by suspending the assessment and calling an immediate meeting with all the collaborating teachers. At that meeting, the teachers shared their concerns about the scale.

The major concern was that the scale might compound the problem for certain children who were already rejected by their peers. One teacher showed his concern by stating:

> I just thought there was a bit of potential danger there. There are a few social problems in the class, particularly with a minority child and I just thought this could present a risk that was greater than I would usually take.

Another teacher stated poignantly:

> We work very hard on self-esteem at the school here and I can just see some of the items on the scale could cause some ripples in some kid's self-esteem, particularly the ones that are having difficulty in those areas and there are a few of them in every class.

Still another teacher was concerned that in completing the scale, children might look over each other's ratings and make unkind remarks about children who had been socially isolated. The teacher expanded:

I have children here, like this little J. Nobody would play with him. He is a behavioral boy with whom great progress has been made. I am concerned because of the way my class is situated, desks being close to each other, being a very small room that the children would lean over and say something like, "J, nobody wanted to play with you."

After apologies from the researcher for failing to inform the teachers more thoroughly about the scale, the researcher and the teachers began a process of problem solving. Suggestions included: a change in the administration of the scale; moving the student's desks so that they would not peek at each other's responses; administering the scale individually; or allowing teachers to administer the scale since they know the students best and could ensure that students did not exchange answers. A changed form was designed which involved students in simply nominating classmates. The revised form and procedures pleased all the teachers and the testing continued using the new scale.

Problems and Conflicts – Reflection: Grade 7 Teacher

As part of the project I was asked to identify possible problems or concerns. For one thing, the facilitators changed yearly while the project continued from year to year. This was due to the fact that the student assistants (facilitators) graduated. This meant that follow-up was difficult. Secondly, yearly make-up of classes meant that some children were involved in the project for three years in different settings making it difficult to assess their involvement with peers and their attitudinal change since the group dynamics were altered. Thirdly, for the wheelchair activities, which were to provide insight into the idea of physical disability, more assistants were needed since safety is always a concern when a group of thirty children is involved. Additionally, some of the wheelchairs for the activity were either too large or too small for some students. Prior grouping of children by size and fitting for size of the wheelchair would have been advantageous. Similarly, since the crutches were too small for older children, prior height adjustments were necessary. Easily adjustable crutches would have been more appropriate.

In the delivery of workshops, although sincere in their efforts, the facilitators could have shown more enthusiasm in their approach with the pupils and could have been more relaxed in their presentations. At times their dialogue with the children seemed restrained and somewhat prescriptive. As a result, keeping all the children focused and on task was a problem.

A new element was recently added to the *Friend-Making* project. This part of the program which contains parental involvement to help children connect with each other through telephone calls, was difficult to get underway. The original letter to parents generated too many questions. A revised letter was sent home explaining the process of involvement of both pupils and their parents. Sixteen children in the class opted to get involved in the phoning but the coordination of the project appeared to reach an impasse. This may be due to the fact that children were not sure who the special needs children were and therefore the calls were difficult to arrange without relinquishing confidentiality. Furthermore, children with special needs who were the ones the program addressed did not return parental permission to take part. These incidents could be identified as being typical of pilot projects. Revisions will make future projects more effective.

Value of Collaboration: Researcher's Reflection

Many valuable outcomes have accrued for the researcher from this collaborative relationship. Of immediate value was the fulfillment of the research goal and the professional interest in promoting awareness of social integration of children with disabilities. As part of this process, the workshops were refined and the content was expanded.

A very significant outcome pertained to the researcher's feeling that her work was recognized because of the teachers' support. The continuous involvement in the project by the teachers represented approval for the quality of the project and demonstrated its value for their students. This support and involvement by the teachers resulted in refining the programs and developing collaboration with other teachers.

Equally valuable is the fact that the researcher has become more accountable for her work; this project contributed to this accountability. Through the teachers' feedback about the facilitators' teaching manner and the assessment scale, the researcher became more cautious about the tools used for assessment and the methods of teaching in the school context.

Reactions of Children to the Project: Reflections of a Grade 6/7 Teacher

In order to corroborate my assessment of the effect of the project on the children, I asked my students for their reactions this year. All of them volunteered and experienced one or more of the *Friend-Making* programs. I asked whether they believed their experiences made them more aware of disabilities. All but one agreed that they were more aware of people who have disabilities. They also agreed that the programs generated excitement, broadened their perceptions, and promoted their acceptance of others with disabilities. The children also stated that they have become more open with people with disabilities in general, not just peers with disabilities. These children felt they have also been encouraged to be more tolerant of others.

The only exception to the question about whether the children had received any benefits from the project is an intelligent young man in a wheelchair who said, "I'm not sure." Shortly after his comment, there was a school dance and several girls asked him for a twirl. After initial shyness and polite decline to dance, this young man was swinging his wheelchair around amid the girls who danced around his wheelchair. This beautiful event may have been, at least in part, due to the workshops that had been offered.

Pre and post-test results of students' possible attitudinal changes were provided to me. Booklets of students' discussions of disabilities were also made. These materials have been useful for my follow-up class discussions on topics about disabilities.

Suggestions for the Projects: Reflection of a Grade 7 Teacher

Personally, I think that the program did promote better understanding and heightened awareness of individual differences within the school community. However, to provide specific feedback on the project, I asked the students for their opinions. They made the following comments. First, they felt that the research team needed to be more enthusiastic about the project. Secondly, the students thought that in the questionnaires for assessment, some questions were too personal and the choice not to answer was not allowed. Finally, they felt that putting their name, although only first name, on the papers made them hesitant to answer private questions.

The following are some personal suggestions. For collaboration research on disabilities, the teacher assistants of pupils with special needs should be invited into the collaboration. The research assistants could also be present when discussing the project and their involvement in the process. To generate students' interest in participating, classroom visits by the research team could be made to introduce the program to the class as a whole and to allow for possible interaction with the class prior to implementation. For reliable assessment through children's questionnaires, numbers, rather than first names should be used. This procedure might help eliminate children's uneasiness.

Discussion

This project has demonstrated that teachers and university researchers can work together on a significant educational issue. Teachers and researchers, however, have different professional orientations. While researchers focus on the research aspects, such as carrying out the research project and collecting data, teachers direct the focus of attention to the practical utility and reality of their classroom. These differences could influence both stakeholders in different ways. While the researcher treated the research process as a study of collaboration, the teachers reacted to the collaborative research by evaluation based on whether the project would benefit their classes. In sharing their goals and different experiences, teachers and researchers may come to understand each other better.

In teacher-researcher collaboration, the researcher and teachers reap many benefits. Perhaps the most concrete benefits for the researcher resulted in refining both the assessment tools and the method of providing the intervention program. While specific professional gains may not be immediately apparent for the teachers, they can benefit from the insights gained by the students they teach. All children developed new understandings and children with disabilities gained peer acceptance and support.

Because of their different cultures and interests, the collaboration between researchers and teachers was not without conflict. Teachers had a practical agenda for their children's learning and well-being (Hattrup & Bickel, 1993). Teachers' concerns would thus be different from those of the researcher. Conflicts might be unavoidable. Resolution of conflicts is crucial to the continuation of the collaborative relationship and depend on immediate action. When teachers are involved in problem solving, they are most willing to assist. The present study demonstrates that the result can be most satisfying for the researcher and for the teachers.

Implications for Future Research

Researcher-teacher collaboration can provide a ground for addressing important educational matters, such as the integration of children with disabilities, and has potential benefits for all parties. Researchers must continue to explore this potentially fertile base for research and practice in education. This study has identified several important processes that can lead to successful collaboration. Further empirical evidence is needed on all aspects of collaboration, including the benefits for teachers and researchers, and the impact on students.

Author Note

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A program for the Future: Implementation of a Non-Traditional Timetable.

Part I: Teacher's initial perceptions.

Kathie M. Black

Reporting the findings from part one of a study on the implementation of the Copernican Timetable, the study documents teacher perceptions about the influence of the timetable on teacher, student, and parent relations, teacher satisfaction, and student success,

In the midst of increasing social problems, decreasing financial resources, and rapid content knowledge changes, secondary schools are forced to respond. Traditional timetable scheduling in most secondary schools may contribute to problems facing students.

This project is a collaborative effort between the University of Victoria and a local junior secondary school beginning June 1994 and continuing for approximately three years. The purpose of the study is to evaluate the effectiveness of the Copernican Timetable recently adopted by the school. This is a comprehensive study specifically designed to assess the new schedule for program effectiveness and prepare teachers to implement the non-traditional timetable.This study will address the following questions: What is the effect of the Copernican Timetable on student academic performance, attendance, and, enrollment? What changes are seen in teacher and student perceptions regarding instructional time, quality of instruction, clarity of subjects, and student-teacher interactions? How do teachers perceive change in classroom teaching practices?

This paper reports on *Part I* of the project dealing with teacher perceptions regarding classroom teaching practices during the transition to the new time tabling system. *Part II: Adjusting to Arising Needs* will utilize program assessment to implement appropriate changes for the 1995/1996 school year. *Part III: Building Upon Strengths* will focus on striving for continued improvement in student and teacher success under the new quarter system.

Rationale

Nicolaus Copernicus was a revolutionary astronomer in the 16th century. Many of his ideas encountered great resistance and skepticism. Perhaps the most striking intentions of Copernicus' ideas were that they dealt with simple change instead of complex theories. The simple change of thinking from the earth being the center of the planetary system to the sun being the center was considered both incorrect and dangerous. Given the political and religious nature of the times, this new idea was revolutionary. The same is true of the new Copernican Timetable system emerging in many secondary school systems throughout British Columbia. This timetable replaces the traditional semester system of eight courses to one of a quarter system consisting of ten weeks where students attend only two courses during the term (Carroll, 1990).

In traditional semester systems, students would attend eight different subject courses which rotated each day. Class sessions took place over short time-spans of usually less than one hour with mass confusion taking place in corridors during five minute breaks between classes. Teachers typically would see close to 200 students during a day, teach several different subject disciplines, have massive amounts of administrative paperwork, and have very little time for one-on-one interactions with students (Jorgensen, 1993).

The Copernican timetabling system offers a quarter system of ten weeks each with only two classes offered during each day. Teachers are able to have smaller student ratios of sixty students per day, no more than two teaching preparations (often only one) per ten week term, and more time for quality instruction and student-teacher interactions. Instruction is more student centered allowing course curriculum to be geared toward student responses to learning rather than by being driven by the clock. Longer class periods provide time for students to absorb material being taught and develop problem solving skills. Feedback regarding learning happens sooner between teachers and students due to smaller class sizes, fewer courses to prepare for, and longer periods of contact between students and teachers (Jorgensen, 1993).

As with all change, problems do emerge. Teachers voice concern about the lack of time to prepare for longer class sessions and worry about their ability to hold student attention over the entire two and a half hour class session. Curriculum planning seems insurmountable due to the large amounts of material taught during the ten week period.

Schools introducing changes, such as the Copernican Timetable are not equipped for the drastic methodological change in actual teaching practices and fail to prepare their teachers sufficiently in appropriate teaching strategies required for the longer time blocks.

Little or no outside guidance has come from university faculty specializing in teaching methodologies and curricular planning. In an attempt to enhance the success of the revolutionary change in the school's timetable, a collaborative effort is being made by secondary methods' instructors and other professionals at the University of Victoria to assist the teachers and staff to address and cope with the change in their school. This study also serves the important task of documenting change and examining that change statistically.

Methodology

The overall project is a quasi-experimental study that uses pre and post measures to examine related changes that occur in the school according to: student and teacher attitudes toward the system; overall grade point averages of students; subject and grade level grade point averages; and, attendance and withdrawal rates of students. This paper is descriptive in nature and specifically evaluates initial teacher perceptions regarding the time schedule change.

Teachers in each core subject area from the school were surveyed to assess any teaching practice concerns that could be addressed by members from the Faculty of Education at the University of Victoria. Specific needs voiced by administrators and teachers at the school centered around learning ways in which they might go about enhancing the learning environment for students through effective teaching strategies, plan unique and interesting lessons, and assess student understanding of subject matter. Other needs identified were methodology and strategic guidance for an extended time period, guidance for alternative assessments, curriculum planning strategies, and technological assistance and training in the uses of technology in education.

After this initial evaluation, members from the Faculty met with teachers and administrators to discuss teaching strategies for longer class sessions. Numerous ideas, suggestions, and techniques were shared with teachers and staff by university faculty in the areas of language arts, math, science, social studies, physical education, and French. During the first term, independent groups at the school surveyed teachers and students as to their perceptions and attitudes of instruction and learning (see Appendix).

Collection of descriptive data is essential at this initial stage of the overall research to discern teacher and student needs and to establish future research goals. The evaluative form used has not undergone scrutiny for validation as it was primarily designed by student/teacher groups from the school to gather initial information. Surveys collected at this stage in the research are by self-report of all participants. Final reports regarding student information changes occurring due to the change in scheduling and student/teacher perceptions will occur through collection of school statistical data and by random selection of student records and student/teacher perceptions.

Findings

Data collected from the school-administered teaching survey after two quarters of instruction provided quantitative and qualitative information. Evaluation questions relate to teacher planning time, teaching strategies/classroom conditions, content/subject areas, student success, teacher/student/parent relations, and teacher satisfaction.

Teacher Planning Time

Of 26 teachers reporting, 13 regard teacher planning time to have increased due to the new time-table, 2 felt that planning time has remained the same, 9 report that their planning time has decreased, and 2 responses were not applicable.

Table 1: Teacher planning time/work load

Question	Planning Time	%
Total # of responses	26	100
Planning time increased	13	50
Planning time remains the same	2	7.7
Planning time decreased	9	34.6
Other	2	7

Typical responses for those reporting that planning time had increased were:

> Increased because all your planning, organizing, marking, ordering, purchasing has to be done after school, evenings, and weekends.
>
> Increased because of new structure for course.

Characteristic replies for those feeling teacher planning time and work load had decreased were:

> I'm more organized, less mess due to decreased number of students.
>
> Decreased especially if repeating a subject in subsequent terms.

Some teachers reported an increase and decrease in planning time (i.e., more planning time for each course but decreased planning due to the lessened number of different subject preparations, or due to this being the first planning required for the change). With following quarters and years less planning will be required. Representative responses were:

> Increased as courses were modified to meet the new schedule, decreased as more experience with the system is gained. It is easier to keep track of 2 blocks, planning 2 different courses has not been that difficult.

Teachers chose preparation times based on personal preference according to having one of the four quarters off, one block each week off, yearly interspersed spare blocks, alternative work weeks (i.e., 1/8 time off in two weeks), or part-time positions. Characteristic teacher comments regarding their choice of preparation time were:

> Having a block off every 4 days is great!
>
> I have managed with no prep so far and am looking forward to my third quarter. I was coaching a team so things got very busy but the fewer number of students to mark helped. I would pick this same delivery system next year.
>
> I like one afternoon free every 4 days but with the classroom being in use, working at school is not very efficient. The old system was a better arrangement.
>
> I like having a spare for 20 weeks.
>
> Prep to happen in quarter 2, as a result I have felt very tired and had more sickness than in the past.
>
> So far, quite content. I like the fact that teachers have a far greater say in the planning of their prep time.

Teaching Strategies/Classroom Conditions

Twenty-three of 26 teachers reported that there were fewer disruptions of class time by other activities due to the quarter system. Nineteen teachers saw fewer discipline problems and 17 reported that they were using a greater variety of teaching techniques due to the longer blocks of time for class sessions.

Table 2: Teaching strategies and classroom conditions

Question	Fewer Class Disruptions	%	Fewer Discipline Problems	%	More Teaching Strategies	%
Total #	26	100	25	96	25	96
Yes	23	88	19	73	17	65
Same	1	3	3	11	1	3
No	0	0	1	3	7	26
Other	2	7	2	7	1	3

Teacher comments regarding whether class disruptions were notably positive:

> Absolutely!
>
> Yes, the climate has changed definitely. Students are much calmer.
>
> So far definitely! I no longer have to waste time every hour settling down a new intake of students. They know what I expect, settle down immediately.

Teacher remarks regarding fewer discipline problems and referrals, or both were also notably positive:

> Yes – less stress overall – on staff and students.
>
> Yes, re discipline problems/referrals – now I have more time to handle any that occur and deal with it effectively.
>
> Yes. It's been wonderful to establish daily relationships with a smaller group of students.

Illustrative responses regarding teacher utilization of a greater variety of teaching techniques because of the longer blocks of time were as follows:

> Not necessarily, the subject is both teacher centered and student centered.
>
> Absolutely! It really allows me to teach the way I always wanted to. The fifty minute classes were extremely frustrating for me.
>
> The longer classes allow us to complete labs and activities and to use a greater variety of methods. Group work, cooperative work, more videos, more interactive activities.
>
> Yes, handing over more responsibility to the students.
>
> You have to build in greater variety or students would turn you off before the 2.5 hours is over!!

Content/Subject Areas

Sixty to 64% of teachers reported no specific problems or difficulties in specific subject areas or with completing courses during the quarter system.

Table 3: Content/subject areas

Question	System Creates Problems Subject Area	%	Difficulty in Completing Course in Quarter	%
Total #	25	96	25	96
Yes	9	34	5	19
Same	0	0	2	7
No	15	57	16	61
Other	2	7	2	7

Teacher comments regarding whether the quarter system created problems specific to their subject area were:

> Sometimes field trips are hard to coordinate in the morning because things are not open early enough.
>
> Oral/aural program, difficult for kids who miss more than one or two days.
>
> It helps in the science area.
>
> Generally it's great. Lots of reporting, every two and one half or five weeks.

Illustrative teacher comments concerning completing a course in any specific quarter and, if so, how they dealt with this were:

> I am able to cover more, with less stress and see a better academic improvement than when I had the students all year.
>
> We have covered much more material.
>
> I am not able to get through as much content as I could in the past but I am able to get more writing completed.
>
> I'm more selective and do my best.
>
> Lots of revision and fine-tuning. This will take two to three repeats of course.
>
> After the year's initial run though it would be easier to make adjustments and streamline courses.

Student Success

Of the 25 teachers responding to questions regarding student success and motivation under the quarter system, most commented that students were more successful, more motivated, and had fewer difficulties in class.

Table 4: Student success

Question	Longer Block Creating Difficulty	%	Students More Successful	%	Students More Motivated	%
Total #	25	96	25	96	25	96
Yes	8	30	20	76	20	76
Same	0	0	2	7	1	3
No	17	65	0	0	1	3
Other	1	3	3	11	3	11

Typical teacher comments regarding student success were:

> I think some of the students needed time to adjust to the longer concentration spans, but most coped quite well.

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> For math I have found the kids hit the wall and are saturated in two hours.
>
> Marks are up . Of the eight IPs I gave only one fail, one "C" and the rest were "C+ , B".
>
> I am able to catch problems sooner and deal with them because the student is seen every day.
>
> Course is more intense and students adjust by also becoming more focused.
>
> Students are more immersed in their subjects. There is a natural flow and thus they are more motivated.
>
> Short term goals are realized, concentrating on one subject. The students can't coast. They have to engage.
>
> They have a better idea of the course goals and intentions. They enjoy student centered projects.
>
> Students are more motivated; see success and good grades as more possible. Easier to be consistent for both teacher and student.

Teacher/Student/Parent Relations

Sixty-one percent of teachers responded that there was an improved relationship with their students in the quarter system, and 65% of responses felt that parental contact was more likely to occur.

Table 5: Teacher/student/parent relations

Question	Improved Student-Teacher Relationship	%	Parental Contact More Likely	%
Total #	25	96	25	96
Yes	16	61	17	65
Same	3	11	5	19
No	3	11	2	7
Other	3	11	1	3

Typical comments regarding student/teacher relations were:

> More time with kids lets them get to know you better.
>
> With more time for one on one, we become more comfortable with each other.
>
> More time spent with fewer students can only help me and my students.

Teacher comments regarding parental contact:

> More likely, fewer kids at one time allows us to contact parents more.
>
> I find it less likely because I have fewer problems to deal with (attendance, discipline).

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> I haven't noticed any difference except more parents are happier because more students are successful.

Teacher Satisfaction

Twenty-three of the 26 teachers reporting are happier with the quarter system, and 18 of 25 teachers responding report that the new time-table has enhanced their teaching and enjoyment of teaching.

Table 6: Teacher satisfaction

Question	Happier With New Timetable	%	Enhanced Teaching Enjoyment	%
Total #	26	100	25	96
Yes	23	88	18	69
Same	1	3	0	0
No	1	3	5	19
Other	1	3	2	7

Teacher responses regarding their satisfaction with the quarter system were:

> A different type of workload. I don't procrastinate because I can't. It's easier for me to get an overall plan for the course of the 10 week period.
>
> Very much happier.
>
> Less stress, can do more in longer periods.
>
> My wife will testify to a noticeable improvement in my disposition.
>
> I like the pace and once the marking load was adjusted, it has allowed me more time for myself.
>
> More flexibility, less confined, restricted to schedules.
>
> It has forced me to re-evaluated teaching strategies and materials.

Conclusions

Based on the initial findings from the self-report survey, teacher planning time has increased slightly under the new timetable. Most teachers are satisfied with their personal choices of planning time and are hopeful that as they receive more experience with the new system their comfort levels will raise. The majority of teachers report that there are fewer discipline problems and disruptions under the new timetable and that they are using a greater number and variety of teaching strategies. Slightly more than half of the teachers report that the quarter system enhances the quality of subject content. Most teachers report that students are notably more successful under the quarter system due to the decreased number of students per class,

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longer time sessions, and more teacher involvement. Likewise, reports show that teacher/student/parent relationships have improved. Most of the teachers reporting are happier, less stressed, and enjoy the new timetabling schedule over the traditional schedule. Teacher satisfaction, student success, and fewer class disruptions are the three highest areas of improvement seen due to the quarter system.

It is evident from the initial survey results that teacher perceptions regarding classroom teaching practices during the transition to the new timetabling system are positive. Initial realized benefits from this project for this junior secondary school are immediate success and enhanced learning experiences for students, more fulfilling teaching experiences and greater academic success, fewer attendance problems, and lower student dropout. Potential benefits for education based on initial and continued practices of the quarter system for secondary schools are great. Initial positive results from this study add direction for promotion of timetable changes in other secondary schools, further research into appropriate classroom strategies to enhance learning experiences in greater time blocks and ten week terms, and continued research into teacher perceptions regarding scheduling and its impact on the learning process.

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Appendix

The following questions and sub-questions framed the independent survey administered to teachers:

I. How has the quarter system affected teacher planning time?
A. Has the teacher planning/time load increased or decreased?
B. Please comment on your choice of preparation time delivery.

II. How have teaching strategies and classroom conditions been affected by the new time-table?
A. Do you find that class time is disrupted less by other activities?
B. Have there been fewer discipline problems/referrals?
C. Are you using a greater variety of teaching techniques because of the longer blocks of time?

III. What difficulties does the quarter system have on your content/subject areas?
A. Does this system create problems specific to your subject area?
B. Is it difficult to complete a course in any specific quarter?
C. If so, how do you deal with it?

IV. In what ways have longer blocks of class time affected student success?
A. Are the longer blocks creating difficulties for you or your students
B. Are the students more successful on the new time-table?
C. Are students more motivated? Why or why not?

V. Have teacher/student/parent relations changed?
A. Is there an improved relationship between you and your students?
B. Is parental contact more or less likely to occur?

VI. In what ways has the new time-table affected teacher satisfaction?
A. Are you happier with the new time-table?
B. Has the new time-table enhanced your teaching and enjoyment of teaching?

Schools and Family Resource Centres

Margie M. Mayfield

The characteristics of family resource centres, the rationale and need for these programs, examples of family resource centres are described and key factors in planning school-based family resource centres are discussed.

There is growing recognition of the importance of and need for programs which support families with young children. Family resource centres have been established in a growing number of Canadian schools in the past decade as one way of assisting families. This paper is a distillation of several research studies I've done in the past decade (Mayfield, 1986, 1988, 1990, 1991, 1993a, 1993b). An ongoing area of interest has been programs for families with young children that are comprehensive in orientation and utilize a variety of delivery models. These types of programs are often categorized under the generic term "family support programs".

Family resource centres are one type of family support program helping today's families with young children. Canada is known internationally for its family resource centres and is considered a leader in this area (Bjorck-Akesson, Brodin, Hellberg, Lindberg, & Sinker, 1990). Family resource centres are expanding across Canada and now number approximately 2000 of which 15% are located in schools (Williams, 1995). However, British Columbia has relatively few school-based family resource centres compared to most other provinces (Williams, 1995).

This paper will present (a) a brief overview of the rationale for school-based family resource centres, (b) characteristics and development of family resource centres, (c) examples of programs, and (d) a discussion of key factors in planning school-based family resource centres.

Rationale and Need for Family Resource Centres

The rationale for family resource centres is found in theory, research, and family demographics. Psychological and sociological literature considers the family to be the most powerful influence on children's development and the provision of family support during the first few years of a child's life as a possible preventative measure. Research from early childhood and parent education programs supports the importance and influence of the family in the healthy development, socialization and early education of children, as well as the efficacy of these programs, and the need for informal and formal supports for families (Berger, 1991; Epstein, 1990; Powell, 1991).

Significant economic, social, and demographic trends have impacted on Canadian families in the past 20 years. These trends include falling marriage and birth rates, increasing divorce rates, a doubling in the number of lone-parent families, smaller family size, historically high unemployment rates, little overall increase in real income, a below replacement birth rate, and subsequent dependency on immigration for maintenance of a stable population (La Novara, 1993; The Vanier Institute of the Family, 1992, 1993, & 1994).

All families need support at some time and, although they may not be in crisis, all families have needs and experience stress. Social networks can provide support for families. In Canada, most families do not have the extended family that, in the past, had been a traditional source of support. For these families, support is found outside the family in the context of the community.

In recent years, the mandate of the school has been broadened and the school's role in the community has been expanded. There has been an increasing recognition and acceptance of the importance of the role of the family in the education of young children and calls for schools and families to form partnerships in the education of their children (Boyer, 1992; National Commission on Children, 1991). Many schools are examining and implementing ways to involve parents and other family members meaningfully in the education of their children.

For some school districts such as Toronto, North York, Winnipeg, and several in Quebec, one way has been to establish family resource centres in their schools. One of these districts reported the benefits of school-based family resource centres were: the schools were perceived as more approachable, the schools gained a better understanding of local families while families gained a better understanding of the schools and their programs, parent participation in the schools and parent associations increased, and there was a breakdown of barriers between school and community (Gordon, 1987).

Characteristics of Family Resource Centres

Given the wide variety and range of programs offered by family resource centres, an inclusionary definition is not realistic. Some examples of these programs are:

Early childhood programs (e.g., toy library, play group, drop-in centre, summer programs)

Parent programs (e.g., parent education courses, workshops, well-baby program, informal and formal job training, language program for recent immigrants)

Child care programs (e.g., caregiver association, child care registry, babysitting cooperative)

Information, advice, and counseling (e.g., telephone warmline, financial/nutritional/legal counseling, referral services, resource library, newsletter)

Material support (e.g., clothing exchange, toy exchange, food bank, breakfast club)

Support groups (e.g., for parents of special needs children, parents-in-crisis programs, teen parent programs)

Advocacy and community coordination (e.g., community volunteer boards, training of board members and others).

Because of the lack of an inclusive, agreed upon definition of family resource centres, it is more meaningful to describe the general characteristics of family resource centres. From examining a variety of family resource centres, several characteristics can be identified. Family resource centres have a nondeficit orientation with an emphasis on prevention and "wellness". These programs have a transdisciplinary approach which includes education, health, psychology, social welfare, and general family support. Inherent in this broad approach is the recognition that wellness can be promoted in many diverse ways including "providing information, developing social networks, promoting mutual aid, encouraging positive health behaviour and advocating for effective public policy" (Canadian Paediatric Society, 1992, p. 21).

In addition to an emphasis on a nondeficit orientation, family resource centres take an ecological perspective which (a) considers the child as part of the family and the family as part of a community, and (b) recognizes the importance of children's early years, the role of the family in children's development, and the diversity of families and communities (Kagan & Shelley, 1987; Mayfield, 1991; Weiss & Jacobs, 1988; Weissbourd & Kagan, 1989; Zigler & Black, 1989). Family resource centres are community-based, accessible, adaptable, and accommodating of family diversity (Bennett, 1989; Mayfield, 1993a).

The orientation to both adult and child is another characteristic of family resource centres. Many of these centres provide information and activities directed at developing social networks for families and providing information on child development as well as information about available resources and services within the community. Parents with infants and preschoolers often attend drop-in sessions. Because parents are expected to assist and supervise the children during drop-in sessions, they have opportunities to meet and become acquainted with other adults in the community. In addition, it is an opportunity for the parents to develop further parenting skills and to learn about appropriate activities and materials for young children.

Family resource centres have operated in Canada since the early 1970s. The first one in British Columbia was the West Side Family Place in Vancouver which opened in 1973. Family resource centres now exist in all the provinces, the Yukon, and on all Canadian military bases. British Columbia has almost 200 family resource centres including a dozen in the Greater Victoria area. The one in James Bay is the closest example of a school-based family resource centre in Victoria.

Examples of School-Based Family Resource Centres

Schools are a frequent location for family resource centres because they are usually centrally located, neighbourhood-based, highly visible, and accessible by foot or public transportation. Family resource centres may be housed in a school but not funded by the school district or they may be a school district funded program, or be jointly funded by several public and/or private sector sources.

Perhaps the best known Canadian example of school-based family resource centres is the Toronto Board of Education's Parenting Centres which were begun in 1981 in local public schools. Ten years later, there were 21 centres in schools throughout Toronto (Gordon, 1991). These centres provide places where parents can come with their young children to participate in activities for the children such as playing with toys, music, and art activities, and also "share their concerns with others, observe and discuss young children, and receive support and information in a non-threatening, non-judgmental atmosphere" (Gordon, 1987, p. 41). These centres also serve as an information resource for community services. Each centre is staffed by parent workers who provide informal educational opportunities for parents on topics of interest to that particular group of parents. The centres may provide workshops, guest speakers, films/videos, multicultural libraries, toy libraries, storytimes, cooking demonstrations emphasizing good nutrition and ethnic foods, sewing machines, parenting classes, etc.

Some of these programs have a predominance of one ethnic group such as Portuguese or Chinese families; other programs target teenage mothers. In one of these programs, the principal regularly had lunch with the mothers and required teachers in the school to go in and have an occasional cup of coffee with the teen mothers. The teens learned to make nutritious babyfood, organized a teacher-teen lunchtime volleyball league, developed computer skills, and demonstrated child development for elementary school children (Gordon, 1991). Many programs are multigenerational with for example, grandmothers helping younger mothers. One centre had four sisters who attended with their nine children; at others, three generations of a family attended together (Gordon, 1987).

Since 1972, the North York Board of Education has sponsored parenting programs that now serve approximately 7,000 families a year through four parent centres. As part of the Early School Years Project funded by the Core Area Initiative, Winnipeg School Division No. 1, and Manitoba Education, three parent centres were established in 1985. One of these was school-based and two more were added in the next few years.

Key Factors in Planning Family Resource Centres

Six factors to consider in planning family resource centres including school-based centres are:

1. The recognition of the diversity of today's families;
2. The assessment of community, school, and family needs;
3. Location and establishment of a family resource centre;
4. Staffing;
5. The need for on-going funding; and
6. The importance of documentation and evaluation.

The Recognition of the Diversity of Today's Families

Given the changes and diverse patterns in family structure, there are more than one or two "types" of families who need or will use family resource centres. Within one neighbourhood, there can be a wide variety of families with differing and often unique needs, for example, parenting teens, recent immigrant families, and parents of special needs children. Planners of programs for young children and their families need to "respect the very different needs of families and…respond to them in such a way that schemes and services are not only available but also accessible, appropriate and above all acceptable" (Pugh & De'Ath, 1984, p. 203). This involves respecting and understanding local values, families' views on children and the role of the family, family dynamics, parenting styles, child-rearing practices, and communication styles.

The Assessment of Community, School, and Family Needs

In order to gain knowledge about the local community, the programs and services currently available, and what is needed, assessment is necessary. The purpose of assessment is to identify the needs of the community and the school, the extent to which these are being met, and programs/services families want and would use. A thorough needs assessment can help determine what program components are the most appropriate, provide data and information useful or required for obtaining funding, and prevent unnecessary duplication of services in a community. Various methods have been used to obtain needed information including questionnaires, interviews, focus groups, public meetings, and discussions with key personnel of local community agencies and existing programs.

Location and Establishment of Family Resource Centres

Schools can be desirable locations for family resource centres because they usually meet the criteria of being centrally located, accessible to public transportation, high profile, and known to community members. Available, sufficient, and affordable space is a primary concern in establishing a family resource centre. In small communities, often the only options are the school or the church hall or basement. Schools with increasing enrolments may not be able to make a long-term commitment for space. Ideally, a family resource centre should be established in a location where it can continue for at least several years.

One negative aspect of a school-based family resource centre is that not all adults have had pleasant experiences in school as students and therefore, may be reluctant to return to a school. Also, for some immigrants, large institutional buildings can be intimidating. Many centres in such locations encourage current participants to bring their friends and relatives. The most frequent source of information about a family program is word-of-mouth and recommendations from one parent to another (Mayfield, 1988).

Participants from the community and local families should be involved in the planning and operation of the family resource centre. The participation of community families in planning and development can enable programs to be more culturally relevant and can facilitate community acceptance of, interest in, and participation in the program. School staff also need to be involved in the establishment and operation of the school-based family resource centre. The family resource centre can serve as a nonthreatening meeting place for families and teaching staff.

Staffing

Staff of family resource centres have a wide variety of personal and professional backgrounds. In many of the family resource centres of the Toronto Board of Education, all staff members speak two or more languages used in the local community. Some family resource centres use volunteers, not only for financial reasons but as a way to provide more cultural and linguistic continuity with the community.

The traditional role of the professional as expert or person-in-charge, is not an appropriate model for a family resource centre. Staff need to recognize, encourage, and utilize the skills, knowledge, and expertise of the participants. For example, participants in these programs have taught sewing, ethnic cooking, dancing, parenting techniques, English, literacy, knitting, quilting, and even roller-blading, as well as giving each other advice and support on countless topics.

For family resource centres based in school buildings, there is the opportunity to encourage interaction and mutual support among the parents, children, and staff of both the family resource centre and the school. According to Bucci & Reitzammer (1992), "the teacher will become part of a team of professionals [and families] working to help children to become successful and contributing members of society" (p. 292). Preservice and inservice teachers can use assistance in further developing the knowledge and skills needed to be effective and collaborative members of both informal and formal interdisciplinary networks. Such training for educators and other professionals would facilitate meeting the need for "a coordinated network of multiple resources that builds on family and community strengths" (Edwards & Young, 1992, p. 80).

The Need for On-Going Funding

Perhaps the biggest obstacle and greatest frustration faced by family resource centres is the tenuous, uncertain, often short term, and variable nature of funding. In today's economic climate, many worthwhile programs must compete for the same limited resources. Many programs that are "successful", high-profile programs with a credible history "are poorly funded and barely manage to survive" (Kagan & Shelley, 1987, p. 13).

Family resource centres in Canada, including many school-based ones, typically receive funding from multiple sources such as federal, provincial, and municipal/regional governments, private foundations, charities, modest membership fees, corporate contributions, fund-raising, etc. One of the problems associated with obtaining funding is that the informal nature of these centres may not impress funding sources and because these programs are meant for and used by all families, and not specifically for families at-risk or in-crisis, it often seems more difficult to secure funding (Bennett, 1989). In addition, "the family resource movement has been largely invisible to many funders and policy makers" (Williams, 1995, p. 90). More school-based programs might help to reduce this invisibility problem.

The Importance of Documentation and Evaluation

Documentation and evaluation can be a Catch-22 situation for programs in that "they do not have the resources to undertake quality evaluations, yet without hard data to prove their effectiveness, they have difficulty marketing their programs to obtain additional resources" (Zigler & Black, 1989, p. 13). *The Children Learning for Living Program,* developed and operated in one school by the Ottawa Board of Education and the Canadian Mental Health Association, had to get a $250,000 grant from Health and Welfare Canada to show that the program, which included a play group and parent programs, would be appropriate and useful in other schools as well. The Ottawa Board now funds this program in 10 elementary schools.

Documentation and evaluation of family resource centres is also needed to enable the program to continue to meet community needs which may change over time. Evaluation can help determine who is using the program, how satisfied they are, what effect it has had on them and their family, and what they think is needed in the future. One local family resource centre added a toy library and a children's clothing exchange in response to feedback from parents participating in their programs.

Conclusions

The need for and desirability of family resource centres has been recognized by various Canadian commissions and government task forces for many years. Indeed, the Canadian Commission for the International Year of the Child (1979) recommended the establishment of a variety of family support programs including community-based family resource centres in neighbourhood schools. However, recognition of the desirability and need for family resource centres has not resulted in the necessary means and resources to initiate family resource centres in most communities across Canada. Family resource centres, including school-based ones, have an important role to play in providing support and resources to families with children. They can be a significant part of the network of services necessary to meet the needs and wishes of today's families and are important for the healthy functioning and growth of today's families and their children.

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Ownership of Learning in Portfolios

Margaret B. Robertson

The role of portfolios in the degree of ownership students assume for their learning in a professional, pre-service teacher program is examined. Students' comments reveal that ownership has considerable impact on learning, while enhancing professional growth and the relationship between students and instructors.

Pre-service teacher education programs provide prospective teachers with a foundation for their professional development. Changes in both the teacher role and in understanding the nature of teacher growth have placed increased demands on those who teach in responsive pre-service programs that endeavour to prepare students to meet the challenges of their chosen profession. Many teachers are readily assuming and welcoming responsibility for their own professional growth and are recognizing the vast resources for learning about teaching that exist in their own classrooms (Dudley-Marling & Searle, 1995; Wells, 1994). The preparation of preservice teachers to engage in this dimension of the teacher role requires some transformations within their learning patterns. This is a challenge for university students who have become skilled in accommodating the demands of externally imposed learning tasks.

The Context

The University of Victoria's pre-service program fosters reflective thinking and culminates, for most students, in final courses that provide opportunities for students to examine the larger educational issues that shape the context for teachers' practice. One of these courses is Curriculum in which students explore the teacher role and the nature of teacher decision making. The course is built around three strands: recognition and enrichment of each student's personal philosophy of teaching and education; expansion of knowledge of principles and practices for curriculum planning and practice; and the interpretation of key policies and guidelines in curriculum in British Columbia. The focus of the course is the students themselves as they grapple with developing their understanding of their new professional role.

Portfolios were chosen as a way of organizing the students' course work for the potential offered for choice, for assessment of process as well as the product of learning, for recognition of improvement and achievement, and for accommodating diversity of interest and preferred learning mode. The multitude of experiences of this senior class contributed to the expectation that the students could identify specific goals and learning experiences to meet those goals within the course structure. Individual learning plans were proposed and negotiated with the instructor, thereby ensuring the feasibility of the tasks and appropriateness of the evaluation criteria for the portfolio components. Above all, the aim of using portfolios was to create a learning community in which each student could develop his or her voice and could experience the reward of internally motivated learning, thereby strengthening the foundation for their professional lives.

Recognition of the importance of the personal component of the teacher's professional profile has received considerable attention in the last ten years (Aitken & Mildon, 1991; Connelly & Clandinin, 1988; Witherell & Noddings, 1991). Teaching is one of the few professions to which novices come with years of experience from their own schooling. They bring interests, knowledge, and values that contribute to the development and shaping of their professional practice. But, utilizing these strengths within university courses is difficult where distancing is usual. The portfolio organization of learning fosters diversity and includes negotiated evaluation criteria. The potential, therefore, exists for the inclusion of learning explorations that derive from the students' personal experiences, that might otherwise present too high a risk in learning settings where evaluation criteria are all externally derived.

The learning in the portfolios would represent at least part of a journey taken by each student through the course. The portfolio was expected to be informed from many sources and shaped to meet different purposes. In this way learning could be viewed as "a search for some kind of coherence, some kind of sense,... a process of effecting new connections in experience, of thematizing, problematizing, and imposing diverse patterns on the inchoateness of things" (Greene, 1978, p. 3). By recognizing, discovering, and forging links between diverse elements within their experiences and within the content of the course, students might be enabled to make meaning for themselves.

Throughout the semester each student developed a portfolio that became the basis of the grade for the course. A requirement of three to five portfolio components guided most students to develop four pieces of work for grading. Choices of components included personal/professional journals, analyses of past practica, reflection on professional year, units of planning for teaching, book reviews, analyses and reaction to education concerns in the popular press and in movies, analyses of government policies and guidelines, traditional academic papers and reports, and oral, video, and visual presentations.

Perceptions of Learning

The processes of inquiry emphasized within the portfolios were to explore, analyse, demonstrate, and celebrate; a sequence that encouraged thorough development of projects. Prompted by the account of a grade five teacher (Graves & Sunstein, 1992), who wrote that his portfolio was "an extension of me now...It is how I want to paint myself" (p. 127), students chose challenging projects in which to engage. One student wrote of it in this way:

> I found the openness a little frustrating – as I began to put together projects I thought would be beneficial to me, I realized that in order to meet my level of expectation a lot of learning would have to take place – reading, researching, analyzing, reflecting.

Other students recognized the involvement they found in their portfolio work:

> While I approached many of my other assignments this year with the attitude "let's just get this done and over with", I became very involved with the assignments I chose to do for this class.
>
> In the last year of the program I found myself routinely turning out assignments simply to appease specified requirements - I think some independence and self-determined learning should play a part in advanced courses - I was able to wrap up some very necessary work that was valuable to me as an individual.

Some students, like this one, looked for utility:

> I will actually be able to use these assignments.

Others enhanced their conception of reflective thinking:

> I value the process of reflection because how else can you learn if you can't make connections between present and past experiences and decide how they could influence future situations?

One student wrote of the power dynamics in schools and placed the portfolio experience in a favourable light:

> This kind of assessment provides a degree of empowerment for the student, as the feeling that education is "done to you" is replaced with a belief that you are part of the process.

Some students seemed to find closure to something that had eluded them:

> This portfolio has contributed to my finally developing (concretely on paper) my personal philosophy about education and teaching.

> This portfolio has galvanized my thinking as to who I am as a teacher and as a person.

The comments of these students convey a sense that they could, through the opportunities afforded by portfolio organization, develop some degree of ownership and satisfaction in their academic work. The hope is that having had this experience, they might when they are teaching, seek similar learning engagements that will contribute to their professional development.

Liz's Writing

The quality of students' work in the course is a key indicator in judging the appropriateness of portfolios in the university classroom. Selections from one piece of work by one student are presented here as an illustration of the kind and quality of written work produced within the course.

As one component of her portfolio, Liz chose to do a retrospective analysis of her school practica in two classes that were very different from one another. The experiences had left her with many questions and conflicts that she had not answered or reconciled when she embarked on the Curriculum class. She began with a poem:

THE PRACTICUM.............good days and
bad days............

just when
I think I've got it...
colors begin to fade
smiles subside
uncertainty envelopes me

just when
the moment seems right...
it escapes in the fog
becomes obscure
smallness humbles me

just when
a new direction opens...
I doubt its promise
purposes tremble
uncertainty envelopes me

Later in the paper Liz explained that poetry was a new means of expression for her but having experienced it in class, she found that it "helps to focus and organize thoughts." Within a thirty page paper described "simply as a discussion with myself" were two more poems that are quoted here to illustrate the connectedness of ideas from the course with Liz's experiences and thoughts:

I used to believe that I could be a good teacher
by having some kind of honest relationship with children.

But I realize now that is not enough.
I used to feel that teaching
would come naturally

But I understand now that good teaching
like everything else
is learned.

She continued to explain that, "At this point in my education, teaching methods and philosophies have been absorbed to the point of saturation. It is now time to make honest choices, to build a foundation from which I can begin to teach effectively." Liz's foundation for teaching is clearly demonstrated and celebrated in this poem:

One important thing about teaching
is knowing
organizing planning timing

Another important thing about teaching
is selecting
materials content levels

But the most important thing about teaching
is connecting

harmonize unite affect
inspire.....change.... (Liz, 1995)

Discussion

Portfolios have long been used in the fine arts and, more recently , have become an accepted form of organizing in the language arts. They offer the potential for students to make choices and to be evaluated on the best of their work. In addition, they convey to the learner the message that each component of the portfolio is part of the larger picture of the learner – not that each assignment is separate and discrete.

Using portfolios in a university class of forty students presents challenges to management, depending on the parameters used to delimit students' work. In the Curriculum course described, between 140 and 180 individually designed assignments were submitted for grading and reaction. The desirability of conferencing to ensure that good learning contracts are developed requires at least one conference for each student, although many more were scheduled in order to give advice about individual pieces of work. Pacing of work is difficult for both students and instructor. Students, not uncommonly, underestimate the amount of time needed to complete planned work and marking dates cannot always be adhered to. A modification to the portfolio components could alleviate some management difficulties, for example, by including some common components that might be completed by all students and by expanding the audience and/or readers for some components.

The use of portfolios in an academic course in a professional pre-service teacher program holds promise and potential for enhancing student learning. This paper has been concerned only with ascertaining whether or not students assumed some degree of ownership when portfolios were used to organize their learning. But what is also clear from the students' comments as well as from consideration of the concept of ownership, is that the impact of student ownership can be considerable. Ownership of learning provides opportunities for authentic professional growth and fosters a change in relationship between students and instructors so that collegial, professional mentoring can occur.

Authentic professional growth for teachers has been characterized as a "struggle" (Grimmett & Neufeld, 1994), a recognition of the challenge to negotiate through complex and competing ideas in a changing educational arena that increasingly must be met by a moral response from teachers. Authentic professional growth is inextricably intertwined with identity, "our authentic, inner qualities of unity and wholeness…designed by us and nurtured through dialogue with others in the community" (p. 208). For the preservice teacher the struggle to identify one's self in the teacher role constitutes part of the foundation for later professional struggles. The portfolios explored here, because of the potential to incorporate personal experiences and values, provided a way of supporting students as they struggled for identity within the teacher role.

The task of reassuring the apprehensive student and of recognizing and respecting varying professional stances is daunting. The inclusion of personal and commonplace beliefs in a teacher preparation program presents special challenges to the instructors. However, as Buchmann (1993) observes, these unexamined beliefs "must be appraised as bases and guides for professional conduct and, where necessary, challenged" (p. 148). The scaffolding and modelling provided by the instructor can allay the dangers of underexamined thoughts and ideas in the writing in students' portfolios.

Within writing classrooms, where students produce many writings that are meaningful to them, the climate is generally described as one in which collaboration and cooperation are evident. The potential for authentic and meaningful writing in portfolios raises the probability that instructors' stances would change in some ways as students' writings were encouraged through more collaborative, less directive teaching. This kind of learning relationship is particularly appealing in a professional school and within a profession where collaboration is lauded.

Conclusion

The concept of ownership in academic work within teacher education has implications for the locus of power and professional relationships within the university setting. Implied is the notion that students who have experienced ownership of learning will contribute to the changing conception of the teacher role. Thus, it could be argued, student ownership of learning should be a cornerstone within teacher preparation programs, both for individual development and for renewal of the profession.

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Themes of Development for Beginning Counsellor Trainees in an Off-Campus Graduate Program

Anne Marshall and Trace Andersen

Focusing on the development of counsellors in training, this pilot study isolates several themes involving counsellor identity. Students' course journals and individual interviews are used to investigate changes in sense-of-self for counsellors in training.

Students training to be counsellors need to develop both competence and confidence. Competence is addressed through courses, practice, performance feedback, supervision, self-reflection, discussion, reading, and other skill-oriented activities. The development of confidence is much more challenging. How do trainees come to believe in their ability to be a counsellor? As instructors in a graduate program, we are intrigued by the variety of, and changes in, students' beliefs about their sense of "self-as-counsellor." Many of our observations would fit into a developmental context, that is, there appears to be a movement forward over time. We have been drawn to models of counsellor development such as those posited by Hill, Charles, and Reed (1981), Loganbill, Hardy, and Delworth (1982), Stoltenberg (1981), and Stoltenberg and Delworth (1987). However, these models conceptualize the process as being a systematic or orderly one, which is not consistent with our own observations. We find that some students seem to make steady progress, others start off well but then seem to regress, still others experience a fairly long plateau where there is not much movement at all. We find that varying developmental patterns exist.

One thing we *have* consistently observed with beginning students is that moment of "getting it," that moment when they truly see themselves as counsellors. We call this their "counsellor identity," the realization that, "Yes, I can do this." This realization often comes after a period of self-doubt, or at least wondering on the part of the students. It may come near the beginning of the students' program, perhaps in their initial prepracticum course. It may come later, during the practicum. We have noted that there exists a definite shift in their confidence and a lessening of their general anxiety about being able to counsel following this identification.

We were not able to find anything in the counselling literature that directly addressed this shift to counsellor identity. We also noted that, although there are numerous studies in which trainees are asked very specific questions about a variety of feelings and behaviours, there is very little information based on open-ended investigation. In an attempt to address both of these issues, we decided to ask counsellor trainees to describe their own experiences of counsellor development, and see whether they would be able to identify a realization of identity as a counsellor.

This investigation was a pilot study for a larger project. Our goals were: (a) to have counsellor trainees relate how they experience their development, (b) to see whether counsellor trainees would spontaneously report specific instances of counsellor identity, and (c) to test the methodology for the larger study.

Method

Design

The investigation of experience has taken many forms. In their research with teachers, Clandinin and Connelly (1994), conceptualize experience as narratives, "the stories people live" (p. 415). They have found that when people tell their experiences, they do so in a chronological story form. This approach was considered to be appropriate for our study because we wanted our participants to describe their awareness over a period of time that was relevant to them. We chose a face-to-face interview format for obtaining the students' stories.

Because we wished to have a minimal influence on the trainees' stories of development, we asked only one open-ended question: "What is your experience of the process of becoming a counsellor?" We used the word "becoming" because we did not want to imply that the trainee necessarily had or had not yet experienced any realization of counsellor identity. Our intent was simply to direct them to our area of interest in their training experience (their developmental process), then as Heshusius (1992) recommends, let them tell their story in their own way. Once the participants had spoken as long as they wished in response to the question, the interviewer(s) asked for clarification and/or explication of any statements which seemed to be unclear. The interviews lasted from 60 to 75 minutes each. All were audiotaped and transcribed.

Participants

The participants were five students enrolled in an M.Ed. program in Counselling at the University of Victoria. They were in an off-campus, or distance program, offered through Continuing Education to teachers and others working in helping fields. These students study full-time on campus during the summer, then take one course in each of the fall and spring semesters over a two year period. The students proceed through all their courses together and as a result become a very cohesive and mutually supportive group.

At one of the summer classes both researchers outlined the purpose and procedures of the study, distributed explanation/consent forms, and asked for volunteers. Fifteen of the 25 students in the program indicated an interest in participating. Due to time and funding limitations, only five students were interviewed. Those selected represented a variety of backgrounds and years of helping experience. Three of them were currently teachers, and two were community-based helpers. Helping experience, including teaching, ranged from three to 25 years. There were four females and one male. (The proportion of women to men in the program is approximately three to one.) The volunteers who were not interviewed had the option of participating in the research through submission of their prepracticum course journals for thematic analysis. (For results of the journal analysis, see Marshall, 1995.)

Interviewers

We were the interviewers in this project. Both of us have taught and supervised counsellor trainees in both on- and off-campus programs. For this group of trainees, we had been co-instructors of their prepracticum course, so had already developed relationships with the participants. Although we considered this to be a positive factor in terms of rapport and understanding, we acknowledge that it may have influenced the participants in some less positive way. In order to minimize concurrent role conflicts, we interviewed the participants about six months after the end of the prepracticum course. The first two participants were interviewed by both authors. The second author then had to withdraw from the project because of other work commitments. The first author interviewed the remaining three participants using the same format.

Interview Analysis

As Mishler (1986) states, "a general assumption of narrative analysis is that telling stories is one of the significant ways individuals construct and express meaning" (p. 67). It was our intent to explore the meaning of the participants' experiences of their development as counsellors.

The following procedure was used to analyze the participants' stories:

1. The first author listened to each taped interview. Transcription errors were corrected. Voice emphasis and pauses were noted. Behavioural observations

recorded during the interviews were also added to the transcripts.

2. The separate meaning statements in each transcript were identified and labelled.

3. The major meaning statements were summarized for each transcript.

4. All the meaning statements were grouped into clusters, or major themes. Related sub-themes were also identified.

5. Each transcript was then analyzed to identify which themes were present for each participant.

Results and Discussion

The findings from the interviews are discussed under three headings: the interview process, shared themes, and unique themes.

The Interview Process

All participants commented positively about having the opportunity to reflect on their experience in the training program. As one put it, "it's really great that I've got the chance to do this [interview]." Two acknowledged that they hadn't realized how much they had actually integrated the knowledge and skills learned in the program until this point. One stated, "I actually did a lot more learning than I thought I did." We also noticed that new insights and conceptual shifts occurred during the interviews. One participant observed that as she talked, she was getting a clearer picture of her priorities. These statements tell us that periodic discussion and reflection about experiences in the training program can encourage students to acknowledge the progress and changes they have made or are making and help them reaffirm or modify their goals in training.

All participants discussed their experiences chronologically. Two began their stories with experiences leading up to their entry into the program, one started with awarenesses and influences from childhood, and two began with their entry into the program. This past-to-present description is what Clandinin and Connelly (1994) found when their teacher participants related their stories.

As interviewers, we were also affected by the interview process. Our own understanding of the students' process has expanded and deepened as we listened to their stories. We also noted the difference between our own presence in these interviews, as compared with our more usual roles of lecturing, facilitating, supervising, and giving feedback. Our role here was simply to hear the students' stories, rather than probe, interpret, or direct. We were humbly reminded of our often repeated exhortations to students to "just be with the client and his or her experience," and "if you really listen, the client will tell you what is important." We realized again the challenge of listening fully, and not being distracted by our own reactions or questions.

Shared Themes

The themes and sub-themes described by three or more of the participants are presented in Table 1. The participants are identified by the numbers 1 to 5. In the following paragraphs, the themes are discussed briefly. Illustrative quotations from the participants are included.

All the students spoke about a realization or recognition of counsellor identity, the belief that they can be a counsellor, that they can "do it." One participant said, "coming through that [working with a volunteer client], I was able to realize, yeah, I can do this." This recognition is similar to what Bandura (1982) calls "self efficacy", the belief in one's ability to perform the given behaviours successfully. It appears to be a central concept for counsellors in training and one that needs further investigation.

In contrast to counsellor development models such as Stoltenberg & Delworth's (1987), the participants did not appear to experience a stage-type progression in their development. Factors such as years of helping experience or the intense summer course format should be considered as they may be more influential in these students' developmental process. Related to the recognition of counsellor identity, but not mentioned by all participants, were observations that counsellor development was an on-going process and that their own counselling style was becoming more natural.

Table 1. Themes and sub-themes identified by three or more participants

Theme/Sub-theme	Participant
1. General recognition of counsellor identity	1,2,3,4,5
On-going nature of counsellor development	1,3,5
More natural counselling style	2,3,5
2. Current sense of increased confidence	1,2,3,4,5
Increased willingness to take risks in counselling	1,3,5
3. Current sense of increased competence	1,2,3,4,5
Feelings of incompetence at beginning of program	3,4,5
4. Expanded knowledge of theories, issues, and techniques	1,2,3,4,5
5. Increased skill level	1,2,3,4,5
Desire for more supervised practice	2,4,5

Theme/Sub-theme	Participant
6. Intensity of summer course experience-challenging and tiring	1,2,3,4,5
Lack of practice time	1,2,3,4,5
Intellectual stimulation	2,4,5
7. Increased awareness of own process	1,2,3,4,5
8. Increased awareness of own beliefs and values	1,2,3,4,5
9. Importance of personal growth	1,2,5
10. Recognition of constraints to counselling in school system	3,4,5
11. Importance of self-care	1,2,5
12. Recognition of boundaries in the counselling relationship	1,3,5
13. Importance of support	1,2,5
Value of small collegial support groups	1,2,5
14. Importance of attaining balance	2,3,5
15. Developmental similarity between teaching and counselling	3,4,5

All five participants commented on gaining confidence as a counsellor during the program. As one put it "I'm much, much more confident, and much more willing to risk now." Four of them acknowledged confidence as being connected to the prepracticum course, in which they practice counselling with their peers and with volunteer student clients from an undergraduate class. At the same time, all the students said that this course was particularly challenging. Increased competence was another theme identified by all participants. They made comments such as: "I definitely feel much more competent now;" "I'm not just flying by the seat of my pants;" and "When things come up, I seem to be able to deal with them." A few made a connection between increased competence and increased confidence and vice versa. Further exploration of this connection could suggest new strategies for enhancing counsellor development in these critical areas.

Not surprisingly, all the students mentioned their expanded knowledge of theories, issues, and techniques: "I just keep learning new skills all the time;" "it really stimulated me intellectually;" and "I found out that I was more existentialist." They also spoke about the application of what they were learning: "I found myself thinking about the implications of what was being said or thought in all these various theories."

Increased skill level was another theme acknowledged by all participants. One described it as, "acquiring more awareness and more skill." Another said, "I'm better able to evaluate my own words [to the client]." A third, when relating a recent incident involving a sudden death, described how she assessed the situation, calmed the children, and "was able to come up with things for them to do [to say goodbye]."

The intense summer course experience was yet another common theme. Participants' statements included: "The summer itself...was a really intense time...it was really packed in;" and "The summer was so intense...exciting, but tiring." They also acknowledged the limitations of this relatively short summer term, "It has a little bit of a blur to it when I go back;" and "I'd like a longer period of time to work on skill building."

All participants spoke of an increased awareness of their own process. One said, "I didn't even know what the term [process] meant, and now I realize that I'm doing it all the time." Another said, "I've understood more my own experience, my own process."

Increased awareness of their own beliefs and values was another universal theme. One participant spoke of asking herself, "What are my fundamental beliefs about change and about human nature?" Another talked about reconciling both spiritual and counselling values, "That was an important understanding for myself to come to...my faith and my philosophical ideas were not opposing." Others mentioned values related to being a counsellor, for example, "I think when you sign on to be a counsellor, you kind of sign on to continue developing yourself for the rest of your life. It's like a real commitment to personal growth."

Other themes mentioned by at least three of the participants included: personal growth, constraints to counselling in the school system, the importance of self care, recognition of boundaries in the counselling relationship, the importance of support, the challenge of attaining balance in one's life, and the similarity between counsellor development and teacher development.

Unique Themes

Each participant's story had unique elements. Some of these elements of counsellor development included: the importance of having one's own needs met; dealing with a major crisis of confidence early in the program; the influence of earlier training in helping; and the recognition of a life-long tendency for helping others.

Conclusions and Implications

The counsellor trainees in the present study were able to articulate their own developmental experiences. The participants appreciated the opportunity to reflect on their training experience. The interviews were seen as positive, and in some instances, there were new points of awareness evident during the telling of the stories. These outcomes lead us to recommend that this type of periodic reflection be included in counsellor training programs, in both written and oral forms.

There were a number of shared themes among the participants. All five acknowledged a realization of counsellor identity, their belief in themselves as capable counsellors. They also acknowledged increased confidence and competence. Further investigation of these concepts may provide more information about how counsellor trainees' personal and professional development can be encouraged and fostered. Another could be a more in-depth exploration of these unique elements and how they relate to counsellor development.

For our purpose of exploration, the open-ended interview method was found to be appropriate. One restriction noted was that some themes that might have been experienced by participants either were not remembered, or were not chosen to be included in their stories. One possible solution is to go back to the original participants and ask them about missing themes. The presence of themes can also be confirmed through journal analysis if interviewees are willing to make their journals available. Further confirmation could be found in responses to items on self rating instruments such as the Counselor Self-Estimate Inventory (Larson et al., 1992). We plan to include these three additional data sources for the second phase of our research.

Although there were developmental threads in the present participants' stories, we did not find clear support for a stage-type model of counsellor development. Continued exploration of individual's paths of development may result in new models of counsellor development.

This study was an exploration and the results are of somewhat limited application. Trainees in other programs may experience different themes. Support for the themes that we identified in this program have been found in the course journals of other students in the same type of program (Marshall, 1995). Most of the themes discussed in the interviews were also reported in the journals. The next phase of the research will include interviews and journal analyses involving full-time, on-campus students in the same Master's program. This will add further data to the present results and provide a comparison group.

Our findings have implications for counsellor training programs. Given our participants' enthusiastic response to the interviews, we would recommend that programs include specific discussion of counsellor development concepts and process. This should start early in the program, perhaps as part of orientation. Periodic reflections should also take place during the training.

We found that an off-campus training program has particular constraints related to the intensity and relatively short duration of courses. Trainees might find it helpful to have advance information about intensive-format courses, and strategies for maximizing growth while minimizing stress.

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Self-Reflection in Our Future Teachers

Wanda Boyer and Carole Miller

A journal-based research methodology is used to explore how prospective teachers make sense of their educational practices. Second and third year education students' methods of self-reflective inquiry and approaches for initiating and enhancing self-reflection are examined.

Self-Reflection in Our Future Teachers

The process of self-reflection is a necessary component to any improvement (Bowman & Stott, 1994). Through self-reflection educators can improve their teaching practices by considering their teaching experiences in the contexts of theoretical knowledge and personal values. When does this process commence? Can it start early in pre-service teacher education? How do teachers begin ongoing efforts to evaluate, analyze, and modify their teaching practices? Questioning the level and types of self-reflection demonstrated by Year Two and Year Three elementary preservice teachers, resulted in the following research questions:

> How do Year Two and Year Three students gauge their own learning and note changes in thinking?
>
> What types of self-reflection do Year Two and Year Three students actually manifest?

Review of the Literature

Self-reflection is a personal inquiry with the ultimate goal of bettering oneself by generating a consistent, unified understanding of one's knowledge, beliefs, and experiences. Oberg (1986) indicates that practitioners can discern their unrecognized theories of action and determine the effects on their students only through continued reflection on their teaching practice. Self-reflection acknowledges the importance of individuality in the teaching process. Grant and Zeichner (1984) state that "practices in teaching are enacted under certain specific contextual conditions that differ over time" (p. 58).

A reflective practitioner is one who develops the ability to look at situations from a variety of perspectives, searching for alternative explanations for classroom tenets, and using evidence to support or evaluate a decision

(Kitchner & King, 1981). Cruickshank (1987) suggests, "Rather than behaving purely according to impulse, tradition, and authority, teachers can be reflective – they can deliberate on their actions with open-mindedness, wholeheartedness, and intellectual responsibility"(p.8). Furthermore, Schon (1987) defines the reflective practitioner as one who

> engages in 'reflection-in-action', which is an interior observation and criticism of personal actions. Reflection gives rise to on-the-spot experimentation. We think up and try out new actions...test our tentative understandings of them, or affirm the moves we have invented to change things for the better... on-the-spot experimentation may work, or it may produce surprises that call for further reflection and experimentation (pp. 28-29).

The successful development of understanding and responsiveness to the teaching and learning process is based upon self-reflection and eventual "reflection in action". Eby (1992) supports this point of view by indicating that "successful and effective teachers tend to reflect actively and productively about the important things in their lives, including their careers, their students' needs and educational goals, the school environment, and their own professional abilities" (p. 5).

Reflective teachers are involved in curricular decision making (Eby, 1992). Although they consult with others, teachers must take final responsibility for meeting the needs, interests, and abilities of their students (Boyer & Bandy, 1994). Finally, the routine integration of self-reflective questioning posed by both teachers and students can promote self-directed, lifelong, and thoughtful learning (B.C. Ministry of Education, 1993).

The proposition that self reflection and the reflective process are valuable, leads to the integrated question: How does a novice teacher learn to be reflective about personal decisions and actions? (Bull, 1989; Eby, 1992; Noddings, 1984; Vaughn, 1990). According to Eby (1992), the process begins with teacher preparation courses. These courses should be based on active learning theory. Bull (1989) states that courses which "...focus on content tends to produce passive learners (consumers of knowledge), focus on process tends to produce active learners" (p. 28). McClaren (1990) indicates that in order to be actively engaged in their learning process, the student must master key concepts and skills, which requires discussion, reflection, practice, and application to a wide range of contexts.

Grimmet, MacKinnon, Erickson and Riecken (1990) have delineated three perspectives of reflective practice that help teacher educators to identify the modes of inquiry manifested by their students (p. 23). The first perspective is based on "reflection as instrumental mediation of action" (p. 23). From this perspective, the student focuses on how to perform the required tasks. Furthermore, the student explores the consequences of actions based on directives from a single, external source (e.g., a professor and the professor's class material). In the second perspective, reflection is a strategy for deliberating among competing views of teaching. At this stage of development, an individual has acquired a considerable amount of knowledge and now must deliberate among competing theories and teaching styles. The learner attempts to create a consistent world view by assimilating theories from a variety of sources. This requires that the learner integrate the viewpoints of others. In the final perspective, reflection is a matter of revising one's network of knowledge and beliefs based on classroom experiences. This is achieved through dialogue with other professionals and within oneself. This research explores the self-reflection of Year Two and Year Three students in the context of a knowledge base for reflective practice delineated by Grimmet, MacKinnon, and Riecken (1990).

Research Methodology

This qualitative study involved five preservice teachers between 20 and 30 years of age. Two students were enrolled in Year Two and three students in Year Three of their program. Their previous contact with children ranged from babysitting and coaching to two week observation practicums in elementary classrooms. Students were asked to complete six journal entries over the course of the year.

These students had received their elementary and high school educations in traditional settings, based on the predominant use of lecture, discussion, textbook, and worksheets. These individuals reported high levels of success and comfort in their own elementary and secondary education experience.

As part of their program requirements, these five students were enrolled in a course that was specifically structured to include ongoing, open discussion about the context of the work within the university classroom experience. Students were encouraged to discuss and identify the organization and objectives of the lesson while reflecting on their own understanding and how these strategies would also work with real children. The students were expected to submit monthly journal entries that addressed aspects of their readings, experiences in the classroom, and reflections on their required observations of elementary children. To encourage reflection, students were asked to submit journal commentaries related to what they had learned during the month.

Analysis of the Journal Entries

Qualitative analysis of the students' journal entries reveal a number of commonalities among students related to how they guage their own learning and note changes in thinking over time, and the types of self-reflection that students from Year Two and Year Three manifest. A number of commonalities emerged relating to each research question. These common themes are organized as they related to the research question presented below along with representative excerpts from the journals.

How do Year Two and Year Three students gauge their own learning and note changes in thinking over time?

The Year Two students professed confidence in the growth of their learning over the year. They indicated that they had learned enough methodology in order to begin teaching immediately.

> This has been an introductory course yet I also feel that I now have the basic tools for teaching and exploring this subject in the classroom. Through further study, this knowledge will be enhanced.

From the bravado and courage of Year Two students comes the more cautious view of Year Three students. The three Year Three students indicated that their exploration of new theories had been an opportunity for more detailed investigation. They felt they still had a great deal to learn. Their hope was that what they had learned could be used and eventually assimilated into teaching practice.

> In the past month my classes have taken on new meaning for me. I enjoyed the activities and exercises from the last semester and feel they are an essential part of the learning process. However, exploring new theories and structures has opened up a whole new avenue of learning for me. Much more personal reflection is occurring and it is this type of reflection that promotes positive learning. I feel that the learning that has occurred in my classes lately has been very powerful for me and I hope one day that I can create a classroom environment that is as powerful and meaningful.

These excerpts indicate how the students gauge their own learning. How do they note changes in thinking over time? The quote that follows exemplifies the patterns that emerged in the journal entries of all the participants.

> I find myself feeling more and more comfortable with volunteering information and ideas, and I'm surprised that I am enjoying the feeling of being able to explore my own creativity. I am constantly amazed at the level of creativity among my classmates.
>
> As an adult learner I take many things for granted, but I'm beginning to recognize details about myself that I would not have seen before. I've been given new perspectives on ideas and concepts. I'm beginning to explore who I am.

What types of self-reflection do Year Two and Year Three students actually manifest?

All of the commentaries from the Year Two students show that they were obtaining insights into teaching methodology from the professor or course material without any integration of outside material. The students in Year

Two were exclusively looking to the professor to provide insight into teaching methodology and into their potential as learners and teachers. The commentaries emphasize exact procedure and the benefits to their future students.

> This class provided an opportunity to focus on children as learners and to concentrate on meeting the goals that have been set out in the Elementary Fine Arts Resource Book.

Consistently the Year Three students spoke at great length about how to present activities in ways that are technically precise (e.g., appropriate lesson format, groupings of students, motivational activities). Their responses indicate that they want practical advice and tips on what works in teaching. Following is one student's analysis:

> In order to encourage a comfortable, sharing atmosphere, I as a teacher will have to:
>
> 1. Introduce the students slowly to the elements and structures by pacing the activities throughout the year and provide lots of examples and models for the students to follow.
> 2. Start with low risk activities, slowly integrating higher risk activities.
> 3. Encourage students to commit to the activity.
> 4. Provide time for students to reflect and ask questions about the subject.
> 5. Be flexible with lesson planning and be ready and willing to modify my plan if the occasion arises.
> 6. The students will be looking to me as a role model for how they should behave in class. I will have to communicate the boundaries and also the expectations I have for the students. Students will only be committed if I am committed!
> 7. Provide students with many different ways to solve challenging problems in the class.

Year Three students were also concerned with techniques for encouraging individuals in their classrooms to actively learn how to learn. One student wrote:

> A teachers job is not only to present activities – that's the easy part. The hard part is teaching students how to learn from each activity...The activity must have purpose, direction, structure, and reflection for it to be meaningful.

The Year Two students seemed surprised to find that learning about the feelings of others is a prerequisite to introspection.

> I have gained an insight into the power of taking another person's point of view. This has helped in learning to build understanding about the world. Much of the work we have done has made me a little more introspective and a lot more aware of others' perspectives.

The following Year Three journal entry was the only example of an entry that appeared to show Grimmet's second perspective, his other orientation.

> Children enter the classroom from a life of free play and exploration only to be expected to sit in desks and learn how to read, write, and add numbers. Focus is on oral and written language, communication rather than body language, imagery, and creative play. With the teacher's guidance, the method of learning that children are so familiar with before they come to school can be refined and emphasized in a way that improves the child's understanding of life, society, and themselves.

Although this self-reflection demonstrates an 'other orientation' and an evident personalization of foundational education beliefs about the importance of play, the content of this particular comment appeared in all three of the Year Three journals at approximately the same time. The responses were an adaptation of a required reading assignment and, as such, exemplify a reliance on a single external authority. Students did not attempt to create a consistent world view by assimilating theories from a variety of sources which would require them to integrate the viewpoints of others. They simply agreed with the author.

Recommendations

The reflective inquiry of this study explored the personal learning and teaching efficacy of two Year Two and three Year Three students. The journal entries of the two Year Two students illustrated they were confident in the skills they had acquired and felt that these skills would be sufficient for teaching. All three Year Three students were more tentative in their journal entry assessment of their personal teaching skills. There appears to be a growing awareness among Year Three students of a discrepancy between their present learning personas and the types of teachers they hoped to become.

This growing awareness can be discomfiting, particularly when actual teaching experience is lacking. Within the university setting it is expected that the students will acquire the theoretical knowledge base necessary to support their subsequent pedagogical practice. In essence, pre-service teachers are required to make sense of all of the concepts presented to them without the practical context of a classroom and without contact with small groups of children. It is difficult for many of the students to remember the strategies and theoretical knowledge they have acquired over many years at university in order to practice these skills and make judgements about what would fit their respective teaching personalities.

The present teacher education framework seems to include overexposure to theory followed by a extensive exposure to practicum situations. As part of this system, Year Two and Year Three students are limited to exploring applications of the theoretical knowledge through their own experiences as learners. Goodlad (1990) refers to these explorations as "self-oriented student preoccupations" and postulates that teacher educators must modify their programs to encourage future teachers to become more other-oriented. Furthermore, while the journal entries show that all of the students in this study reflected predominantly on the how of teaching, Valli (1990) indicates that a person who is critically reflecting not only asks how to teach something but, also questions the value of the learning experience for students. There are some specific recommendations that result from the comments of Goodlad and Valli. In the short term, teacher educators should modify existing lessons and create new lessons that push their university students to think of a variety of children's points of view. Preservice teachers should be explicitly encouraged to consider the attributes of a variety of different children as they ask, "How will this lesson/methodology/theory benefit the children in my future classes?" They should also be asked to pay special attention to children with different attributes than they feel they possessed as children (e.g., differing gender, socioeconomic status, academic and physical abilities, and social/emotional states).

In the long term, teacher educators must take a more active role in fostering more and stronger collaborative ties with the school system. Although Year Two and Year Three students included in this study were involved in short two-week practicums at the end of their academic year, the authors suggest an ongoing learning experience for students spanning the years before the final practicum. Specifically, students should have opportunities for actual elementary classroom experiences every week, assisting the teacher in observations and class preparation (such as making materials), and occasionally presenting actual lessons to the children. The assistance from student-teachers would more than offset the time required to mentor the student and thus promote good relations. Moreover, a program such as this would infuse some much-needed classroom experience into the early years of the professional education of our future teachers.

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Learning Styles and Self-Directed Learning in Indonesian Distance Education Students

Carol Marie Harvey and Brian Harvey

Two studies examine the learning styles and readiness for self-directed learning of Indonesian distance education students. The findings of the studies are discussed as they relate to the intersection between three converging disciplines: educational psychology, cross-cultural psychology, and distance education.

The results from two different projects are described. It was concluded that the learning style of Indonesian distance education students are similar to those reported in western studies. Readiness for self-directed learning by these students was judged to be average which also reflects data from western studies. The relationships among learning styles, self-directed learning and achievement is described as mixed.

The research reported represents two studies done as a part of the Indonesian Graduate Training Program. This program, funded by the Canadian International Development Agency through the Open Learning Agency, is directed at enhancing the knowledge and skills of junior academic staff working at the Indonesian Open Learning Institute, or Universitas Terbuka (UT). Twenty-five students have completed Ph.D., M.A., and M.Ed. degrees as part of the Program, and the research topics have focused on such aspects as the students, the staff, and the organization.

The way the studies were conceptualized, designed, conducted, and reported is an exemplar of traditional research in educational psychology. The two studies described were conducted by Mr. Ketut Priadnyana (Learning Styles) and Ms. Tri Darmayanti (Self-Directed Learning) to fulfill the thesis component of their M.A. programs. The studies are individual projects: they are as well representative of the way we collaborated throughout the research process. What is particularly interesting about the two studies is that they illustrate the intersection between three converging disciplines: educational psychology, cross-cultural psychology, and distance education.

Educational psychology is essentially a hybrid of several areas. Its goal is to take both psychological theory and research and either apply or validate the ideas or data in a human interactional setting. The educational psychology processes used to conduct the studies were basic. They involved:

1. Developing the construct: coming up with an idea or a summary of ideas related to an understanding of some characteristics of the human condition (such as motivation, intelligence, or in this case, learning styles or readiness for self-directed learning).
2. Defining the construct: stating the contents or meaning of the construct.
3. Measuring the construct: developing a reliable instrument (such as a test or questionnaire) to assess the construct.
4. Validating the construct: relating the construct to other psychological qualities or variables.

The second intersection occurs in the discipline of cross-cultural psychology which is based on the notion that every person is, in some respects: like all other people; like some other people; like no other people (Kluckholm & Murray, 1953). The search is for broad-based psychological theories or data that lead both to panhuman principles and to a universal psychology. Although this might seem like a daunting idea at first blush, there is really no a priori reason to abandon the task. Research arises in a cultural milieu, a truism which implicitly means that psychology is coloured by its cultural origins. However, the development of a universal system may still be accomplished. According to Parnjpe, Ho, & Rieber (1988), this goal may be reached by employing empirical methodologies, by testing in more and more cultures, by moderating constructs in response to the data, and ultimately, by achieving a univocal perspective.

What is interesting about these two studies is that they easily fall within the discipline of traditional cross-cultural psychology. The location of the studies is, in fact both in a culturally different milieu – Indonesia, which is a geographically and culturally diverse archipelagic nation located in Southeast Asia – and housed in a non-conventional educational setting – the Indonesian Open University, Universitas Terbuka (UT).

Another intersection occurs within the discipline of distance education. UT was established by the Indonesian government in 1984, partially in response to the burgeoning numbers of high school graduates seeking entry into post-secondary education institutions. At present, approximately 360,000 students study through UT, primarily by means of printed materials delivered by mail in the form of modules. As the only distance education university in Indonesia, UT faces the issue associated with distance education throughout the world, of a lack of face-to-face educational interaction between teachers and students. This lack is especially problematic in Indonesia. Dunbar (1991) iterates that the Indonesian education system is both oral and heteronomous, two qualities which may work against students studying alone, working only with print materials, and learning without a mentor present. Thus, the two studies represent a triangulation of educational psychology, cross-cultural psychology, and the non-traditional setting of distance education

Constructs and Instruments

After considering the potential ideas for the research, two well established, simple constructs were chosen, learning styles and readiness for self-directed learning. Work on learning styles began some 30 years ago, and much research has been generated on styles, learning preferences, and cognitive orientations. To shape our work on learning style, the ideas of Keefe (1987) and the definitions and instrument of Kolb (1985) were used. Keefe (1987) defined learning style as "characteristic cognitive, affective, and physiological behaviors that serve as relatively stable indicators of how learners perceive, interact with, and respond to the learning environment" (p. 5). Alternatively, Kolb (1985) conceptualized learning as a four-stage cycle: concrete experience (CE), reflective observation (RO), abstract conceptualization (AC), and active experimentation (AE). In the process of learning, people can be feeling (CE), watching (RO), thinking (AC), or doing (AE).

To measure learning styles, Kolb's (1985) Learning Style Inventory (LSI), a 12 item instrument, was utilized. Each item contains a main sentence and four endings, each of which represents one of the four learning modes or orientations of the four-cycle system. The LSI measures a person's relative emphasis on each mode, abstract over concrete (AC>CE) and action over reflection (AE>RO). By combining the various measures, learners can be categorized as accommodators (CE+AE), divergers (CE=RO), assimilators (AC+RO), and convergers (AC=AE). The rather simple instrument can generate a rich constellation of data. It is widely used, reliable, and valid, but it has been tested almost exclusively in western, conventional settings.

The second construct chosen for this research was self-directed learning (SDL). According to Knowles (1975), self-directed learning "describes a process in which individuals take the initiative, with or without the help of others, in diagnosing their learning needs, formulating learning goals, identifying human and material resources for learning, choosing and implementing appropriate learning strategies, and evaluating learning outcomes" (p. 31). Self-control and autonomy are words that describe the self-directed learner. An assumption, of course, is that the self-directed learner does not work in a face-to-face teaching/learning situation. The consensus is that readiness for SDL is developmental and that it exists to some degree in everyone. However, exactly what leads one to be self-directed is not addressed in these studies. This implies that learners are on a continuum of preparedness for self-directed learning.

To measure the SDL construct, Gugliemino's (1978) Self-Directed Learning Readiness Scale (SDLRS) was used. The SDLRS is a 58 item scale designed to assess the degree to which individuals perceive themselves to possess skills and attitudes frequently associated with self-directed learning. Each response is scored from 1 to 5, with a possible score range of from 58 to 290. A higher score indicates a preference for self-directed learning. People can rank high, above average, average, below average, or low in taking responsibility for planning, implementing, and evaluating their own learning. The SDLRS is a widely used and well-respected instrument. It has, however, not been used in Indonesia or in other non-conventional settings (such as UT).

To make the research cohesive, three questions shaped the work:

1. Will the constructs obtain in the culturally different setting of Indonesia?
2. Will the constructs obtain in the non-conventional distance setting of Universitas Terbuka?
3. Can the instruments be used to predict a performance variable, such as a student's grade point average (GPA)?

Methodology

Sample

To measure learning styles, the LSI was sent to 395 fulltime students of Universitas Terbuka. All faculties were represented. To measure self-directed learning, the SDLRS was sent to 600 fulltime students of UT. Again all faculties were represented in the sample.

Translation

The translation methods for both the LSI and the SDLRS were based on the work of Brislin (1980) and Prieto (1992). The two authors suggest a translation, a committee evaluation, a back-translation, and a pre-test of the translated instrument. Following the pre-test of each instrument, a fluently bilingual person with no experience with that instrument made a translation and compared it to the original English language version of the instrument. The internal reliability scores were .89 for the LSI and .91 for the SDLRS.

Performance Variable

The performance variable chosen for both studies was a student's achievement as measured by grade point average (GPA). The GPA was calculated as the student's cumulative GPA at the time the instruments were completed.

Results and Discussion

The general results of the data analysis is presented in a way which reflects both the intersection between the three disciplines of educational psychology, cross-cultural psychology, and distance education and the three guiding research questions. Regarding the LSI, 218 of 395 (55%) questionnaires were completed and returned, representing all faculties and 28 of 32 Regional Centres. For the SDLRS, 417 of 600 questionnaires (69%) were completed and returned, representing 26 of 32 Regional Centres and all faculties of UT.

The general results indicate that both the LSI and the SDLRS operate in a culturally different milieu and in a non-conventional setting. For the LSI, all four styles were represented and they showed patterns (or "kites" as Kolb calls them) that were strikingly similar to the Western data. All four styles were represented in all faculties, and the general learning style was identified as active and abstract. Students from Economics, Mathematics, and Education tended to be "assimilators," while Social and Political Science students tended to be "divergers." The patterns mirror those of Western students in conventional educational settings. The difference was that, except in one case, scores on the LSI and GPA were not significantly correlated. GPA and AC were correlated across faculties but only at the 0.13 level. These low GPA results may reflect the difficulties at UT as it grapples with the problems students face with the teaching-learning process of a distance education institution.

Data from the analysis of the SDLRS indicate that it too functions. The mean scores across faculties (x=215, SD=21.9) are statistically identical to the original Canadian data (x=214, SD= 25.6) generated by Gugliemino (1978), indicating a limited bias from cross-cultural influences. For the UT students readiness to engage in self-directed learning – initiative, acceptance of responsibility, basic study skill, and articulation of future goals – were average. An interesting tendency, however, was that students in the senior years scored higher on the SDLRS. This seems to imply that the more "mature" students are more ready for exhibiting the control and autonomy required by self-directed learning in a distance education setting. This suggestion is supported by the significant correlation obtained between GPA and SDLRS scores among fourth year students. Another interesting result is that females scored higher than did males on the SDLRS. Exactly what influences this difference remains an empirical question.

Conclusion

What can be concluded from these two studies? The constructs, learning styles, and self-directed learning (as measured by the LSI and the SDLRS), obtain in the culturally different, non-conventional educational setting of Universitas Terbuka. The learning styles of Indonesian distance education students are similar to those reported in Western studies; readiness for self-directed learning is average and relationships among learning styles, self-directed learning, and achievement are mixed; in that the only consistent relationship is between readiness and achievement in third and fourth year students.

Replication and extension are obvious implications for further research. Learning styles and self-directed learning, both dynamic processes, may change over time, therefore longitudinal studies are certainly appropriate. Qualitative methodologies may reveal a richness not immediately apparent in data from questionnaires, especially given the strong oral tradition of Indonesian society. What is clear from the two studies is that the UT students' learning styles and readiness for self-directed learning must be considered as key psychological constructs when developing, implementing, and evaluating new curricula.

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Characteristics of a Successful Learner

Terry Johnson

The author examines the difficulties associated with revising evaluation procedures by searching for alternate means of gathering information. Eight universally agreed upon characteristics of successful learners are identified. These characteristics may provide a viable means to evaluate learners in a wide range of circumstances.

The widespread adoption of a constructivist approach (Shymansky, Yore, and Good, 1991) to learning has had a significant effect on instruction in the classroom. The somewhat passive role assigned to learners in a transmission model of learning (Wells, 1986) is being displaced by classroom procedures that require students to be actively involved in formulating problems, deriving multiple solutions, and conducting cost-benefit analyses of alternative solutions. In addition, competitive and individualist regimes of instruction have been increasingly displaced by cooperative activities and socially determined courses of action (Johnson and Johnson, 1984). These changes have radically modified the learning milieu of many classrooms. The education system is now in the throes of adjusting evaluation practices to accommodate these revised views of learning and teaching. It is generally recognized that evaluation drives instruction. Teachers, students and parents value that which is evaluated. In a perfect world such causality would be of no concern because we would be evaluating that which we value. However, such is not the present case.

Over the past thirty years, and still today, in some educational jurisdictions, value is placed on a number derived from a standardized, pencil and paper, group administered, machine-scored test. Very rarely do the interpreters of such numbers inquire closely about what the student had to do in order to achieve a given score. It is sufficient to know that the test items had been derived "scientifically" and thus represented some kind of "truth".

The successful challenge to these tenuous assumptions has led to a flurry of activity to find alternative means of evaluation. If learning is constructive and cooperative then it follows that evaluation procedures must share these characteristics. Professional texts for teachers are filled with suggestions for "evaluation," for example,

observational checklists
running records
cloze procedures
journals
portfolios
informal reading inventories
audio tapes of oral reading
personal reading lists
reading logs
sociograms
study habit lists
anecdotes
interest inventories
peer comments

The problem with these suggestions is that they are a means of gathering information rather than ways of making evaluative judgments. For example, it is of little value to document that Roberto claims to have read fifteen books listed by title in his reading log. The list omits important information. Are the books of a level of sophistication normally associated with a child of Roberto's age? Has Roberto provided evidence that he has a reasonable understanding of what he has read? Is fifteen a reasonable number to have read over the period of time involved?

A revision of evaluation procedures does not start with a search for alternative means of gathering information but should begin with a reconsideration of the goals of the program. Why do we send our children to school? What beneficial changes do we anticipate as a consequence of doing so? What are the desired outcomes?

The easily accepted aphorism, "let us evaluate that which we value," begins to take on some bite. What we value is expressed in broad terms, in mission statements and in the articulation of goals. Logic demands that evaluation concern itself with determining to what degree those goals have to be achieved for each individual student. If, for example, an educational goal states that we want the student to become a lifelong learner then it seems reasonable that teachers report to parents and students the extent to which the student is adopting the features of a person who is going to become a lifelong learner. If it is true that evaluation drives instruction then let us ensure that there is a tight, logical, self-evident connection between our evaluation procedures and program goals. The chain of logic and causal connection linking goals to reporting via curriculum, instruction, assessment, and evaluation is summarized in Figure 1. The connection between goals and reporting states that the principle inherent in a goal statement should be evident in the conversations that occur during teacher-parent conferences; that the topics named in goal statements should appear in written reports on students; that when, for example, a mission statement establishes life-long learning as a goal, then the degree to which each individual is progressing towards becoming a lifelong learner is discussed with parents and the student.

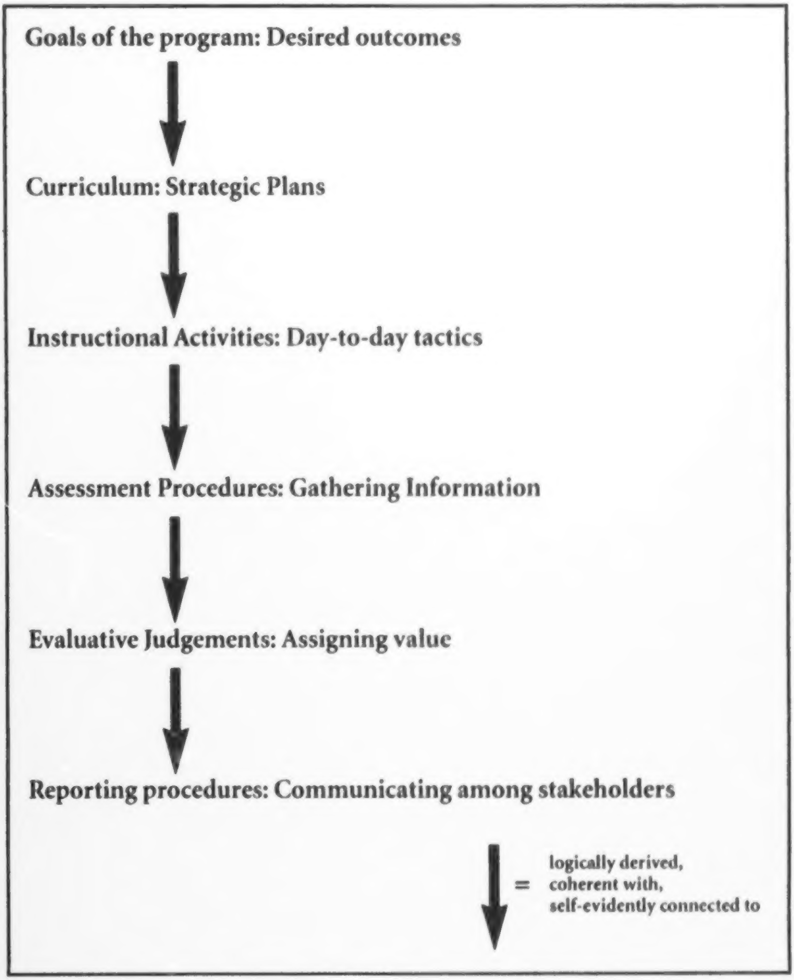
Goals of the program: Desired outcomes
Curriculum: Strategic Plans
Instructional Activities: Day-to-day tactics
Assessment Procedures: Gathering Information
Evaluative Judgements: Assigning value
Reporting procedures: Communicating among stakeholders
= logically derived,
coherent with,
self-evidently connected to

Figure 1. Coherence: the linkage between program goals and reporting procedures.

In pursuing the ideas of connecting goals to evaluations and reports my colleagues and I have come across an unexpected phenomena. In examining educational goals in a variety of ways, it has become increasingly clear that at a certain level of abstraction, a very small cluster of characteristics are universally valued by a very wide range of people. Over the past five years my colleagues and my students have examined information about the characteristics shared by successful learners from five different sources:

(a) examination of mission statements (Smith, 1992),
(b) surveys of teachers,
(c) research findings (Bandura, 1994),
(d) teachers written reports on students (Whitfield, 1994), and
(e) professional texts for teachers.

The unanimity among these disparate sources is nothing short of remarkable. Let us use teacher surveys as an example. My colleagues and I have conducted the following exercise with over ten thousand teachers from across Canada, throughout the United States, and in every state in Australia:

1. Individually identify three individuals who you consider to be successful learners.
2. Name the features that these individuals have that you believe contributes to their success as a learner (e.g. creativity).
3. Share your list with the other members of your group.
4. Arrive at consensus on at least two of the characteristics.
5. Report these two characteristics when called upon to do so.

The results of this exercise, whether conducted with educational administrators in the United States, private school teachers in Canada, or primary teachers in the remote parts of Australia are quite uniform. The responses received are synonyms for, or can easily be subsumed under, the following eight characteristics:

Thoughtful: exercises critical judgment, is reflective, curious, solves problems

Industrious: works hard, does not give up easily, motivated

Generative: has many ideas, original or learned from others

Empathetic: aware of, sensitive to the needs of others, willing to act on another's behalf, cooperative

Risk-Taking: takes reasonable chances, makes decisions on less than complete information, engages in social situations that are perceived to be threatening

Strategic: resourceful, planful, organized, can locate resources and use them well, makes good use of time, has a clear idea of ultimate goal

Knowledge: has a fund of world knowledge, knows curriculum content

Self-Aware: has a positive self-image, able to make realistic self-appraisals, able to monitor, correct and reflect on own performance

Mission statements, when they address the desirable characteristics of learners imply words that are identical to or synonymous with these ideas. When teachers write reports on children they allude to these characteristics; when researchers investigate cognition, creativity, self-efficacy or aptitude, they summarize successful learning behavior in synonymous terms. When authors of textbooks discuss the kinds of features teachers try to foster in students, these terms, or their synonyms, appear. The consistency is so marked that one is tempted to conclude that, at least in educated, democratic communities, they appear to be universal.

The existence of such apparent consistency offers a solution to the problem of proliferation. If standardized tests are to be rejected, what is to replace them? The answers coming from the field seem to be: *All sorts of things. Anything you want. Take your pick.*

A review of evaluation practices by teachers revealed two problems:

a) Teachers were unsure what they were looking for, and

b) Teachers were uncertain about the significance of what they found (Nicholson & Anderson, 1993). Learner characteristics address both these issues. All teachers, on all occasions, look for signs of successful learning which may be manifest in any one or in any combination of the eight characteristics listed above. When behaviors or performances are observed these characteristics provide a stable frame of reference into which the observations may be placed.

Being universal does not mean being uniform. Thoughtfulness, for example, will manifest itself differently in physical education, art, and mathematics. Nevertheless, it is possible to recognize thoughtful behaviors as they manifest in each of those contexts. It is this flexibility that gives learner characteristics stability and provides the teacher with a manageable frame of reference with which to monitor the progress of twenty-five or more learners.

Conclusion

The current flurry of activity involved in searching for alternative means of assessment is misdirected. Evaluation procedures evolve out of educational goals rather than from alternative ways of gathering information. An examination of educational goals from curriculum documents, teachers in the field, and professional literature yields a remarkable uniformity. It seems to be almost universally agreed that successful learners share the following characteristics: thoughtful, industrious, generative, empathetic, a risk-taker, knowledgeable, and self-aware. These eight characteristics provide teachers with a stable frame of reference to evaluate learners in a wide variety of circumstances.

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Personal Response Mapping: Some research possibilities

Don Knowles

Personal Response Mapping is a research approach that involves participants identifying their thoughts, feelings, and behaviours in response to specific situations. The approach allows researchers to gather information about the personal meaning of situations and activities.

Personal Response Mapping: Some research possibilities

The personal experiences of children and adolescents in specific situations are of increasing interest to researchers in developmental psychology, counselling studies, and educational psychology. Provoked by acknowledgments by Bronbrenner (1977) and others of the importance of trying to understand the impact of various contexts in which children find themselves, researchers have embarked on ways to consider alternative reactions to these various situations. Increasingly the individual's perceptions of these situations have come to gain importance in attempts to understand human behavior. For example, Robert Selman, in a series of studies on risk-taking in adolescents, has come to focus on what he calls the "personal meaning" of risks.

> The same risk-taking behavior may serve the function of relieving either stress or boredom. For example, an adolescent may cut a math class because of the stress associated with academic pressures; alternatively, cutting a class may be undertaken in hope of stirring up some excitement in an otherwise mundane existence. (Levitt, Selman & Richmond, 1991, p. 355)

This focus has led many researchers to consider the inner, subjective life of the child or adolescent, a focus that has been sorely missing in previous research on adolescent problem behavior (Feldman & Elliott, 1990).

A recent example conveys the importance of considering the subjective experiencing of adolescents. Lawson (1994) conducted a study of smoking behaviors of pregnant teenagers to determine what purposes this potential health-risk was fulfilling for them. Extensive interviews were conducted with 20 adolescents around their smoking history, what they liked about smoking, and its possible implications for their own health and that of the baby. These adolescents reported that smoking was an important source of security during a stressful period, that it was part of their identity, and that it was a healthy alternative to drugs or antisocial behavior ("I won't go to jail for smoking".). An intriguing finding was that many of these adolescents reported that in their view, smoking contributed to their health by reducing weight gain for themselves and their babies. Hence, they agreed, the birth process would be easier. One young woman reported, "I didn't want a big baby 'cause my labor will be too hard. Just think, if I quit smoking how much bigger I'll be" (Lawson, 1994, p. 69). This presumed benefit of tobacco may, in fact, have been delivered inadvertently by a pamphlet that stressed the link between smoking and low birthweight infants. Adolescents' perceptions about their smoking were considered crucial to understanding its persistence and to plan intervention programs that would have healthier impacts.

Lawson's study is a demonstration that an important research issue concerns the development of approaches which yield information about the personal meaning of situations and activities. The widely used checklist approach which has a participant report on presence or absence, frequency, or attitude toward individual items is often too atomistic or incomplete in what it provides. Lengthy interviews might yield information about these personal meanings but their reliance on recall and their expense, particularly in terms of time needed for analysis, support the pursuit of additional approaches.

In some of our work over the past fifteen years we have assembled an approach to collect reports about responses to relevant situations. Essentially, the approach involves collecting a range of specific situations from research participants then determining probable responses to these situations. Early parts of the procedure have yielded some interesting descriptive studies; the fully developed measure can be used for systematic surveys or measures in a pre-post intervention design. We have called the approach "Personal Response Mapping" because it provides a summary to individual respondents of the ways they are viewing particular activities or experiences.

Theoretical support for the approach comes from the work of Triandis (1980) who generated a complex model of how values and attitudes might be related to behaviors. Individual perceptions of specific situations are considered to be crucial to the understanding of intentions for behavior. In a somewhat simplified version of his model, attitudes are considered to encompass three different aspects which can be investigated separately or together: cognitive, affective, and behaviour. The cognitive aspect involves the ideas and propositions that express the perceived relation between situations and attitudinal objects. For example, one might consider, "Cars use too much gasoline." The affective aspect pertains to the emotions or feelings that accompany the idea or situation. For example, one might report, "I feel very uneasy about using so much gasoline just driving around town." The behavioral aspect concerns the predispositions or readiness for action, for example, "I will buy a fuel-efficient car." Thus, any situation will provoke these three types of response.

This theoretical approach was based on work by Nelson and Low (1979) which in turn inspired the development of our research approach. Nelson and Low created a published measure dealing with interpersonal skills, life skills, and self-esteem. Among other items, this measure included some which had the respondent consider a situation such as making a request of somebody in authority. Several possible feelings, beliefs, and behaviors were presented in a multiple-choice format to be rated by each respondent in terms of likelihood of experiencing. A description of personal strengths and areas of needed change was charted from these responses using norms from university populations to establish standard scores. Little evidence of validity of the measure appears to have been published but the authors report that scores have been responsive to interpersonal skills training and counselling interventions.

The format of the Nelson and Low measure seemed to hold much potential for creating approaches that were credible and appropriate to particular groups. Further, the designation of three types of responses—feelings, beliefs, and behaviors—conformed to the theoretical constructs of Triandis (1980) as a way of tapping personal meaning of respondents.

Our current approach involves three phases of instrument development. In several studies, including work with students with gifted characteristics, the early phases yielded important descriptive data for program development. Therefore, it is not always appropriate to move through all of the stages. The approach provides a systematic plan for moving towards the creation of measures that have clearly established content-related evidence of validity.

Collect Credible Specific Situations

The initial phase involves a type of brainstorming session with small groups of research participants who are similar to those to be considered in the intended research. Participants are asked to describe situations that they encounter by virtue of having the characteristic under study. For example, students in a local gifted program were asked, "Describe, as specifically as possible without mentioning names, situations which you have experienced as a Challenge Student which are important, problematic, or stressful." Students were given cards on which to write each situation and were prompted to be as specific as possible.

In the gifted education study, each junior secondary student was able to provide 6 to 20 examples of situations within ten minutes. Perhaps because the cards were submitted with no identifying information, some of the situations were described quite frankly. For example, one student wrote, "when I realized that the majority of the challenge program was just extra homework which makes me frustrated because I can never finish it." Others were quite confrontative, stating, "in elementary school, where I spent 50% of my time correcting teachers." Some situations portrayed the feelings of being different, "when I'm the only person that wrote a certain answer on a test and everyone I asked had the same answer written down, only different from mine." Many had to do with boredom or lack of challenge, "when you are given an assignment that you completed in elementary school already." Some of the situations acknowledged that the intended program characteristics were being received, "when I get to work alone on my subjects because that way I could work at my own pace or move ahead." From two small groups of students over one hundred such situations were described, many of which were unknown to the teaching staff. A content analysis was conducted on these descriptions to provide a type of needs assessment of themes to be considered in program modifications.

The intention of this first phase is to generate a wide range of situations that have meaning and relevance to research participants. Once this repertoire is created the task is to select those situations that are judged to be most appropriate or representative. This selection can sometimes be guided by the research questions, which was in this case, to present situations that represent academic challenges or relationships with other students. In other cases, it may be more appropriate to return to the research participants to have them guide the selection of credible situations.

Brooks (1987) carried out a study of adult survivors of childhood sexual abuse in which she used the Personal Response Mapping approach. She met with a group of women to consider dozens of situations gathered in the initial phase of this procedure. The women eventually selected seven situations as being representative of the issues they faced as adults. These included "when I see a man alone with a little girl," "when someone says 'I love you' to me," and "on special occasions like birthdays or Mother's Day or Father's Day when I am buying a card for my parents." For the purposes of building a Personal Response form, four to eight situations will typically provide a representative, manageable basis for the next two phases of development.

Develop a List of Possible Responses

The second phase is directed at developing possible responses to each situation to ensure that each of the cognitive, affective, and behavioral aspects of attitudes are represented. Again, to ensure credibility and representativeness to the research participants, responses to the situations are derived from small groups of participants. Typically, respondents are provided with an incomplete sentence form that lists each situation together with statements referring to feelings, thoughts, and behavior. For example, we provided a form to respondents with the following instructions: "Under each SITUATION we would like you to write a response which best describes how you usually feel, think, and behave in these situations." This statement is followed by a description of the situation then by an incomplete sentence and a blank. The following sample of items was used in a study of loneliness in adolescence.

1. SITUATION: When my classmates go off together at lunchtime and don't ask me to join them, I usually feel _______.
2. SITUATION: When my classmates go off together at lunchtime and don't ask me to join them, I usually think _______.
3. SITUATION: When my classmates go off together at lunchtime and don't ask me to join them, I usually behave by_______.
4. SITUATION: When I think about telling someone I feel lonely and talking to them about it, I usually feel _______.
5. SITUATION: When I think about telling someone I feel lonely and talking to them about it, I usually think _______.
6. SITUATION: When I think about telling someone I feel lonely and talking to them about it, I usually behave by _______.

As a result of this survey a large number of responses, in the respondents' own words, are generated.

These responses become a kind of item bank for the next phase. This form also provides data for possible content analysis as a descriptive study of responses by the group or as a possible taxonomy. In situations involving loneliness, for example, adolescents express a range of feelings from emptiness to bitterness, report beliefs that often involve self-blaming, yet report behaviors that do not express or acknowledge these feelings or thoughts in any way. Responses to number four above, have included such feelings as "insecure and uneasy", "relieved", "embarrassed", and "rejected." Thoughts about this situation included, "that they'll think I'm strange", "they won't solve my problem", and "that I'm not the only one who gets lonely." Behaviors included indirect approaches, "by telling them in a joking way" or "by beating around the bush" and inaction, "by keeping it inside and hope tomorrow will be better." If the plan is to move to the next phase to develop a complete Personal Response form, then these responses should be organized either according to the categories of content demonstrated or on some theoretical basis, such as types of coping in the example above.

Create a Measure With Sets of Responses

The third phase yields a paper-and-pencil, self report measure that typically can be completed by respondents in 10 to 20 minutes. The basic format is to provide instructions, a description of a specific situation followed by possible feelings, a second description of this situation followed by possible thoughts, a third description of this situation followed by possible behaviors, and so on for other situations.

In our book on children's concerns about death and dying (Knowles & Reeves, 1984) we used the Personal Response format to provide a self-evaluation for readers. We asked readers to consider each situation and response and indicate Yes if the response usually or often applies or No if it seldom or never applies. This measure included the following items:

SITUATION: When I meet someone whose relative has recently died, I usually feel:

____ 1. some strain, but comfortable in expressing how I'm thinking
____about them.

____ 2. anxious and confused about what to say.

____ 3. overwhelmed and ready to leave them as soon as possible.

SITUATION: When I meet someone whose relative has recently died, I usually think:

____ 4. I should extend comfort by telling them that they will
____eventually feel better.

____ 5. I could help the person by talking openly about death
____with them.

SITUATION: When I meet someone whose close relative has recently died, I usually behave by:

____ 6. avoiding the person so that I won't have to talk about death.

____ 7. offering my condolences, then changing the subject.

___ 8. inviting a conversation about how the person is feeling.

Note that no forced choice is required; respondents may say yes or no to as many or as few items as they feel are appropriate. Responses in this particular example were selected to represent an accept–reject continuum regarding acknowledgments of death experiences, thereby providing a self-report of degree of comfort or acceptance with the topic.

Use of the Personal Response format for research typically involves a greater range of ratings than Yes or No. In our work with adolescents, we have found that three choices are appropriate for rating each response: M (much of the time), S (some of the time), and N (seldom or never). These ratings can be assigned weightings, typically 3, 2, and 1 point respectively, for further development of psychometric properties. In the study of sexual-abuse survivors (Brooks, 1987) described above, four or five responses were provided to each situation to produce a 91 item measure. The responses represented a range of coping mechanisms including avoidance, attributing blame, personal vulnerability, and affirming personal worth. The resulting measure was used in a pre-post design in a study of a group counselling intervention which involved nine women. In comparing post session scores with pre-session, it was found that six women showed an increase in blocking/avoiding, six showed a decrease in personal vulnerability, and four showed an increase in personal worth.

Conclusions

To this point, only sporadic use has been made of the Personal Responses Mapping approach. Currently the format is being used in a study of a course designed to change attitudes about careers. In another study we are developing a version for computer delivery that will be directed at providing self reports to at-risk adolescents. Several of our workshop programs, including one on adolescent loneliness (Knowles & Robinson, 1983), have made use of the measure as part of the sessions. As the need increases for contextually relevant research approaches directed to the personal meaning of participants, the approach would seem worthy of consideration to augment the more typical interview or self-report approaches. Those interested in using the approach are encouraged to do so and to share their experiences.

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Forms of Stress Among Counsellors Working with Trauma Survivors

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Trauma counsellors in British Columbia were surveyed about the incidence and levels of stress in their lives. The findings support the literature on trauma, burnout, and stress, identifying number of years in practice, work setting variables, and perceived support as impacting factors.

There is a growing awareness in the last decade that the counselling profession can be hazardous to the physical and mental health of professionals (Herman, 1992; McCann & Pearlman, 1990; Stadler & Willing, 1988; Guy, 1987). It has been estimated that 6% of psychologists have been adversely affected by alcohol misuse (Kilburg, Nathan, and Thoreson, 1986). Psychologists have reported that an estimated 27% of their coworkers were impaired by alcohol and drug abuse, depression, sexual misconduct, or burnout (Lalotis and Grayson, 1985). Farber (1985) found that 2% to 6% of psychotherapists could be considered burned out. In a study on Canadian psychologists, it was reported that 6.3% were burned out (Kahill, 1986). In addition, health care professionals, including psychologists, have experienced mental illness at a higher rate than the general population, however, exact estimates of actual incidence have not been provided. These studies on impairment and burnout among mental health professionals describe the general incidence of impairment, but they do not specifically address the issue of clients' impact upon the counsellor. The purpose of this study was to examine the pattern of impairment present among counselors working primarily with survivors of psychological and physical trauma.

Three areas of the literature provide information for understanding how clients' traumatic experiences may impact on counsellors. First, theories of traumatic stress explain how counsellors may develop trauma symptoms similar to those experienced by their traumatized clients. The literature on burnout provides information relevant to counsellor impairment and offers parallels between symptoms of traumatic stress and burnout. Finally, studies on countertransference reactions among counsellors working in the field of trauma give insight into the internal process experienced by those working with traumatized individuals.

Support exists for the idea that trauma can be "contagious". Both Figley (1989) and Terr (1990) found that family members of survivors of trauma were developing symptoms similar to the victim. Figley referred to this phenomenon as "secondary victimization", whereas Herman (1992) referred to it as "secondary traumatization." McCann and Pearlman (1990) stated that "persons who work with victims may experience profound psychological effects; effects that can be disruptive and painful for the helper and can persist for months or years after work with traumatized persons" (p. 132). They labeled this process "vicarious traumatization". McCann and Pearlman contended that disruptions in the counsellor's memory system may be affected by working with survivors of trauma. Counsellors may even recall the traumatic story and experience it as their own.

In the burnout literature, Freudenberger (1990) reported that depression, cynicism, loss of vitality, insomnia, loss of intimacy with friends and family, and detachment are significant signs of impairment. According to Meiselman (1990), obsessing about the client, having repetitive nightmares, withdrawing from other clients and family members, involvement in minor deviations from professional behaviour or blurring therapeutic boundaries, and finally, wishing that the case would terminate are all signals that the counsellor is experiencing burnout. It has been proposed that the severity of clients' problems, working with chronic clients, time limitations, and long-term employment in the mental health field are factors that place counsellors at risk (Maslach, 1981).

The literature on countertransference reactions of counsellors working in the field of trauma points to the personal internal reactions of the counsellor as the basis of counsellor impairment. Many of these internal reactions are similar to symptoms experienced by individuals experiencing psychological trauma. In the field of trauma, countertransference has been labeled "traumatic countertransference" (Herman, 1992) or "destructive countertransference" (Corey, Corey, & Callanan, 1992) and involves feelings of being overwhelmed by painful images and thoughts presented by survivors of trauma which obstruct the counsellor's ability to be objective or present.

Kinzie and Boehnlein (1993) describe common countertransference reactions among psychiatrists treating post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD). The most common experiences were sadness, depression, anger, irritability, hyperarousal, over-identification with patients, and intolerance toward patients with stressful lives. In a study of 122 psychotherapists, van Wagoner, Giles, Hayes, and Diemer (1991) found that counsellors responded to countertransference issues by becoming detached, angry, or antagonistic in circumstances where the client material stirred up unresolved personal issues, when counsellors struggled with client transference issues, and where clients demonstrated intense negative emotions.

Based on the literature, it was speculated that counsellors working in the field of trauma may experience high levels of stress and exhibit considerable impairment. The purpose of this study was to survey counsellors in British Columbia, Canada who work primarily with trauma victims. The specific research questions were the following:

1. *Demographic Characteristics.* What are the demographic variables that describe counsellors working in the field of trauma?
2. *Incidence and Levels of Stress.* What is the incidence of general life stress, burnout, and traumatic stress among counsellors working in the field of trauma?
3. *Description of Impaired Counsellors.* Does a profile of the impaired counsellor emerge from the demographic variables and measures of stress used in this study?

Method

Sample

Initially, 430 mental health professionals working in the field of trauma in British Columbia, Canada were identified. Counsellors were selected from professional registries for certified clinical counsellors, registered social workers, child care workers, psychologists, and psychiatrists. Counsellors working in sexual assault centers, transition houses, refugee centers, child sexual abuse centers, hospice societies, hospitals, and mental health agencies or clinics were included in this sample. A random sample of 250 counsellors was drawn representing both the private and public sectors of the mental health profession.

Procedure

A mail survey procedure was the chief method of data collection, using the guidelines described in the Total Design Method (Dillman, 1978). The survey package consisted of four self-report instruments: The General Information Questionnaire (GIQ), the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI; Maslach & Jackson, 1981), the Perceived Stress Scale (PSS; Cohen, Kamarck, & Mermelstein, 1983), and the revised form of the Impact of Event Scale (IES; Horowitz, Wilner, & Alvarez, 1979). A reminder postcard sent two weeks after the initial mailing, and a second mailing of the entire package two weeks after the postcard, resulted in a total of 161 usable surveys which represents a 64% response rate.

Instruments

General Information Questionnaire. The GIQ was designed to provide demographic information concerning age, gender, educational level, relationship status, number of dependents, years in practice, work setting description, caseload numbers, personal and work related support resources, self-care activities, type of trauma issues that clients present, categorization of clients, and perceptions of caseload. The open-ended questions of the GIQ required participants to (a) rate the intensity and frequency of experiences of being affected by clients' traumatic material, (b) describe the experience in their own words, (c) to report whether or not they experienced countertransference issues in their work, and (d) to state if and how these experiences influenced their effectiveness in sessions with their traumatized clients.

Maslach Burnout Inventory. The MBI (Maslach & Jackson, 1981) is a self-report inventory consisting of 22 statements of job-related feelings that are divided into three subscales, Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization, and Personal Accomplishment. The frequency with which each statement occurs is measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from *Never* (0) to *Everyday* (6). The scores for each subscale are considered separately. Thus, three separate scores are computed for each respondent.

Perceived Stress Scale. The PSS (Cohen, Karmarck, & Mermelstein, 1983) is a 14-item self-report instrument designed to measure the degree to which situations in one's life are appraised as stressful. The authors state that the instrument is useful in examining the role of nonspecific appraised stress in the etiology of disease and behavioral disorders and as an outcome measure of experienced levels of stress. The frequency with which each statement occurs is measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale, ranging from *Never* (0) to *Very Often* (4).

Impact of Event Scale. The IES (Horowitz, Wilner, & Alvarez, 1979) consists of 15 items asking participants to comment on the impact of a traumatic event. The IES is divided into two subscales, Intrusion and Avoidance, and provides a score for each of these tendencies plus a Total Stress Score, which is a sum of the two subscales. The anchoring statement was revised for this project by asking participants to comment on the impact of their work with traumatized clients. The participants were directed to indicate how true each item was for them, and the frequency of responses was calculated on a 4-point Likert-type scale ranging from *Not At All* (1) to *Often* (4). A total raw score of 40 indicates that the participants are experiencing traumatic stress symptoms similar to individuals with post-traumatic stress disorder.

RESULTS

Characteristics of the Participants

The ages of the 161 participants ranged from 22 to 67 years, with a mean of 42 years. On gender, 80% of the participants were female and 20% were male. Fifty-two percent of the respondents were married, 9% were single, and 29% stated that they were in other types of relationships. Fifty-six had one or more dependents. Most participants held master's (42%) or bachelor's degrees (23%), while 13% held a doctoral degree. The mean number of years in practice was 9.9 years (*SD* = 7.0; range = 1 to 33 years). Public sector workers represented 58% of the respondents, while 26% reported working in private practice, and 16% worked part-time in both public and private settings.

On questions regarding sources of support, 9% stated that they did not have personal support in their relationship outside of work, and 13% stated that they did not have a supportive relationship at work. Over 65% of the participants indicated that their counselling caseload was "intense". The mean number of clients counselled per week was 18. In an average week, 11 of these clients were reported as being traumatized. The most frequently counselled issues presented by traumatized clients were rape, violence, and suicide ideation.

In response to the open-ended questions, 90% of the respondents reported that they had been strongly affected by a client's traumatic experience in the last year. Ninety-five percent of this group felt that the experience was "intense", and 32% felt that it occurred "quite often". In response to the question, "If you have been strongly affected by clients' traumatic experiences in the last year, what are these experiences like for you", they stated that the experiences were stressful (25%), depressing (18%), tiring (14%), emotionally overwhelming (12%), made them angry (11%), or resulted in intrusive thoughts (10%).

In response to questions concerning the scheduling of self-care activities, 90% reported that they do participate in such activities, while 10% stated that they do not. Getting exercise (61%), taking walks (33%), and obtaining support from friends (26%) or peers (24%) were the most common responses. Only 10% stated that they seek personal therapy, and only 1% sought supervision as a means of self-care.

In response to the two open-ended questions concerning countertransference issues, 69% of the participants described personal experiences of being influenced by their clients' traumatic material. The most frequently endorsed response (25%) was that the experience brought back reminders of their own issues or unfinished business and that it was a disturbing experience. However, a few (11%) indicated that it was a positive experience, one which inspired them to work on their own issues.

The second countertransference question asked the respondents to describe "how the experience influenced their effectiveness in the counselling session with the client." Only 64 respondents stated that the experience influenced their effectiveness. The most frequent response to this question was a positive experience (17%) or that it increased the degree of empathy (16%) that was experienced for the client. However, others stated that they became distracted (14%), were prompted to self-disclose (8%), concentrated more on their own issues (8%), or avoided the issues (6%).

Measures of Stress

Maslach Burnout Inventory. Sixteen percent of the participants reported high levels of Emotional Exhaustion, 4% were experiencing high levels of Depersonalization, and 26% felt that they were ineffective in terms of Personal Accomplishment in their work. The results of *t*-tests for age (t=2.60, p<0.01) and gender (t=2.10, p<0.038) on the Depersonalization subscale were significant. Younger counsellors had higher mean scores than older counsellors, and male counsellors scored higher than female counsellors. An analysis of variance of work setting with each of the three MBI subscales indicated that those working in community agencies had significantly higher scores on the Emotional Exhaustion [F(1,137)=12.54, p<.01] and Personal Accomplishment [F(1,137)=5.37, p<.05] subscales.

A Pearson Product-Moment Correlation produced significant correlations between three demographic indices and the Emotional Exhaustion subscale. Emotional Exhaustion was positively correlated with the number of trauma cases seen per week (r=.23, p<.01), the perception of one's caseload as "too many" (r=.29, p<.01), and the frequency with which the counselor is effected by the client's traumatic material (r=.20, p<.05). As well significant positive correlations were found between the Personal Accomplishment subscale and the frequency (r=.20, p<.05) and intensity (r=.19, p<.05) of being affected by clients' traumatic material. Those counsellors who are frequently and strongly affected by clients tend to have a lower sense of Personal Accomplishment in their work with survivors of trauma.

Perceived Stress Scale. Approximately one quarter of the respondents (24%) frequently perceived their life as being stressful. The three most frequently endorsed items were: "How often have you found yourself thinking about things that you have to accomplish?" (97.4%); "How often have you felt nervous and stressed?" (83%); and "How often have you been angered because of things that happened that were outside of your control?" (76%). Results from the t-tests indicated that those who perceived that they had too many clients (t=2.83, $p<0.007$) and those not having a supportive person in their personal relationships (t=-2.77, $p<0.006$) scored higher on the PSS. Also a significant correlation was found between PSS and age (r=-.16, $p<.05$). Younger counsellors perceived that life was more stressful than older counsellors.

Impact of Events Scale. On the IES, participants were asked to rate the impact of their work with traumatized clients. The mean Total Stress Score was 33.14 (SD=7.1),and the mean subscale scores for Intrusion and Avoidance were 16.08 (SD=4.0) and 16.07 (SD=4.2) respectively. Based on the Total Stress Score, the findings indicated that 14% of the counsellors surveyed were experiencing high traumatic stress levels similar to those experienced by traumatized clients. Sixteen percent had developed Intrusive symptoms, and over one-third (37%) had developed Avoidance symptoms.

An analysis of variance was conducted for the work setting variables. On all three measures of the IES – Total Stress Score, (F[2,156]=22.63, $p<.01$); Intrusion subscale (F[2,156]=21.66, $p<.01$); Avoidance subscale (F[2,156]=12.61, $p<.01$) – community work setting participants had higher scores than those in a private practice or those who work in both settings part-time. In order to determine the relationship between demographic variables and the IES, a series of Pearson-Product Moment Correlations were performed. Age of the participants (with r_s ranging from -.19 to -.24, $p<.05$) and the number of years (with rs ranging from -.24 to -.33, $p<.01$) in practice were negatively correlated with all measures on the IES. Those who are younger and with less experience in the field of trauma reported higher trauma symptoms. The intensity (with r_s ranging from .22 to .29, $p<.01$) and frequency (with r_s ranging from .24 to .36, $p<.01$) with which participants are affected by their clients' traumatic material were positively correlated with the IES Total Stress Score and the Intrusion subscale.

Chi-square tests of independence were conducted between the high and low scorers on the IES Total Stress Score and its subscales and the high and low scorers on the PSS and the MBI. High scores on the Total Stress Score of the IES and the Intrusion subscale were related to high scores on the PSS (Table 1). It would make sense that individuals experiencing traumatic stress symptoms would perceive their lives in a broader perspective as being stressful. High scores on the Emotional Exhaustion and Personal Accomplishment subscales from the MBI and high scores on the subscale measures of the IES indicated that there was a significant relationship between those counsellors who were emotionally exhausted, feeling ineffective, and unproductive in their work, and those who were experiencing high levels of traumatic stress. Signs of burnout may provide important warning signals that counsellors working in the field of trauma are more at risk for developing traumatic stress.

Table 1: ***Chi-square Analysis Between High and Low Scores on the Impact of Event Scale and High and Low Scores on the Perceived Stress Scale and the Maslach Burnout Inventory***

IES	PSS	MBI-EE	MBI-DP	MBI-PA
Total Stress	x2=11.82**	x2=10.2**	x2=.024	x2=.968
Intrusion	x2=11.64**	x2=15.31**	x2=.000	x2=6.23*
Avoidance	x2=.002	x2=13.74**	x2=5.71*	x2=5.71*

Note. x2(1, N=159), *p<.05; **p<.01.

Profile of Impaired Counsellors

A construct for counsellor stress may be defined on a continuum of experience ranging from normal levels of everyday stress to extreme debilitating levels of stress. A definition of counsellor impairment for the purpose of this research, was determined by grouping the high scorers on measures of perceived life stress, burnout, and traumatic stress together. A profile of 23 impaired counsellors emerged and is summarized in the following description: Counsellors experiencing extreme levels of stress most likely will be in their early forties with a post-secondary education. They most likely will be employed in a community agency with less than ten years experience where their client caseload is between 10 to 26 trauma victims per week. They perceive that they have personal and work-related support which comes from friends, family, or peers at work. They find their work challenging and somewhat manageable. However, they state that they have too many traumatized clients and they feel that their caseload is very intense. They frequently experience being affected by their clients' traumatic material. Many of these counsellors have their own personal countertransference issues to deal with in their sessions with traumatized clients. To gain balance, they participate in exercise or activities with friends or family rather than seek supervision or personal therapy.

Discussion

The purpose of this survey was to gain information regarding the incidence and levels of stress among counsellors working in the field of trauma in British Columbia. The findings reported here are supported in the literature on trauma, burnout, and stress. We found that 14% of the counsellors in this survey were experiencing traumatic stress levels similar to those experienced by clients with PTSD. The mean scores of these counsellors are comparable to the mean scores found by Horowitz et al. (1979) in their study of 66 outpatients being treated for PTSD. Horowitz et al. report that the mean Total Stress Score on the IES was 39.5; for Intrusion subscale 21.4, and for Avoidance subscale 18.2. The mean scores for the 14% of the counsellors in this survey were over 40, 21 and 18 respectively. Although 14% of this survey may not be substantial, it is large enough to pose concern. This finding points out that it is possible for practising counsellors to develop traumatic stress symptoms similar to those experienced by their clients. Counsellors who are experiencing traumatic stress may not be able to function effectively or professionally in their practice and those counsellors working in the field of trauma seem to be at risk.

In terms of burnout, 16% reported high levels of Emotional Exhaustion, 4% had high levels of Depersonalization, and over one-quarter (26%) reported low levels of Personal Accomplishment in their work as counsellors. Farber (1985) reported that 2% to 6% of the psychotherapists in his sample were burned out, while Kahill (1986) indicated that 6.3% of Canadian psychologists were burned out. In comparison to these studies, the higher burnout incidence found in this survey may be due to the fact that these counsellors are practising in the field of trauma. Perhaps the difficulty of assessing the progress of traumatized clients or the struggles inherent in working in the field of trauma are factors underlying low levels of Personal Accomplishment and high levels of Emotional Exhaustion. Considering the impact of the clients' stories on the imagery system of counsellors (McCann & Pearlman, 1991) and the usually long duration of therapy conducted with trauma clients the results reported here are not surprising.

Several demographic variables emerged as being significantly related to levels of stress experienced by counsellors. In this survey, younger counsellors scored higher on all measures of the IES, Depersonalization subscale of the MBI and the PSS. Age was the only variable that was significantly correlated with all three measures. This finding is supported in the literature on burnout (Berkowitz, 1987; Farber, 1982; Kahill, 1986). This information may be useful to counsellor training institutions in their efforts to prepare young counsellors for work in this field.

The number of years in practice was significantly correlated with all measures of the IES. It appears that those with the least amount of experience in the field of trauma are more prone to experiencing traumatic stress. This supports Farber (1985) and Hellman and Morrison's (1987) finding that working in the field of counselling is most stressful for less experienced counsellors.

Work setting variables were also significantly correlated with the IES and the EE and PA subscales of the MBI. Those working in community agencies are more likely than those in private practice to experience emotional exhaustion, develop trauma symptoms similar to their clients and feel less satisfied with their personal accomplishments at work. These findings are supported in the research on burnout among mental health professionals (Hellman & Morrison, 1987; Raquepaw & Miller, 1989) where counsellors in community settings reported higher levels of burnout than those in private practice. The literature points out (van der Ploeg et al., 1990; Maslach & Jackson, 1981) that having autonomy and a sense of control over one's work may be important deterrents to burnout. Private practitioners may be able to control for these factors better than those working in community agencies.

Perceived support was related to the PSS measure and the IES. A perception of a lack of personal support influenced higher mean scores on the measure of perceived life stress. However, on the perception of work support, those who stated they had support at work scored higher on all measures of the IES and the EE and PA subscales of the MBI. Perhaps those who are experiencing traumatic stress symptoms and burnout symptoms are presently getting more peer support or supervision than those who do not experience traumatic stress. Another possibility is that coworkers are offering support to counsellors who are evidently showing signs of stress.

It appears that the levels of stress among counsellors are related to the perceived frequency and intensity of their work with traumatized clients. The Total Stress Score of the IES, the Intrusion subscale and the EE and PA subscales of the MBI were positively correlated with the perceived intensity of client issues and the frequency of caseload. It seems to be difficult to feel successful in this field if one has a frequently intense client caseload particularly if the counsellor is emotionally exhausted and is experiencing traumatic stress symptoms.

In summary, the literature on burnout and countertransference supports the findings reported here. Counsellors who are experiencing high levels of stress, such as symptoms of PTSD, burnout, and perceive high levels of stress in their lives pose a risk to their own psychological and physical health as well as threaten the stability of the therapeutic relationship with their clients.

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Manifestation of Latent Thetas: A Comparison of Field-Study and Positivistic Approaches to the Investigation of Self-Nurturance

R.S. Brown, J.O. Anderson and M.M. McGee

Documenting the results of a prolonged and ill-fated case study and a national survey that relied on relatively untried analytic procedures, this paper presents an investigation of the meaning and measure of self-nurturance in Canada. The results yield a poignant portrait of self-nurturance and a stark account of the travail of research on the cutting edge. This paper is also published in the Alberta Journal of Educational Research, 51 (4).

Self-nurturance is an essential trait of humans that appears to have its genesis in survival motivation (Gecko, 1985). It is thought that a balanced manifestation of self-nurturance leads to an independent yet meaningful interactive life within the human community (Rondolini, 1988a, 1988b & 1994). However, there is an absolute dearth of empirical studies into the phenomenon.

This paper reports on the findings generated by a study into manifest self-nurturance. Two research approaches were used to collect and analyze data. A field-study approach was used to observe and interview individuals who were self-described self-nurturants. The researchers shared the lives of a small, selected sample of individuals in order to explore the meanings and manifestations of self-nurturance. A positivistic approach was taken in another component of the study. This involved surveying a larger, cross cultural sample of individuals, and subjecting the data to analyses based on bivariate individual score curve theory (Rogers, McLean & Hambleton, 1992). A final comparative analyses was planned in which the model generated from the field based study was tested using the empirical survey data in a procrustean, structural equation modeling approach.

The Field Study

The field study involved a prolonged, participatory observation of a purposively selected dyad of self-identified self-nurturants who had been living in Victoria, British Columbia for over a decade. This identification of self-nurturance was supported by both anecdotal descriptions generated from a conversation between researchers and the individuals of the dyad, and categorization of life-elements on the G-scale by a panel of trained raters (Gucci, 1982). The basic approach to data collection was a multi-staged infiltration protocol (Brown, 1989). The initial engagement began with the senior author sharing the daily lives of the dyad. To minimize intrusionary characteristics of the protocol, he deliberately role-played a submissive within the social setting of the *home*. During this period, blatant recording of observations such as field notes, audio or video tape could not used unobtrusively, rather recollective anecdotes were the prime data archived from the study. The participant observation continued over a three year period and succeeded to the extent that the researcher effectively became a member of a triad of self-nurturants.

Concerns about the fidelity of the data coupled with the apparent success of the infiltration prompted the insertion of a second researcher into this social universe of self-nurturance. The junior author joined the ethnography in the third year at the invitation initiated by the first researcher but supported by the original dyad. The staged infiltration resulted in two levels of anecdotal evidence allowing for a rich information base that could be fully investigated for strong patterns and evaluated by means of fold-over credence methodology (Traub, 1993).

The information collected over what has turned out to be a five year period provides significant and consistent patterns of insight into the meaning and the manifestations of self-nurturance that are reported in detail elsewhere (Anderson & Brown, 1994). It should be pointed out that the information collected suffered from what could best be termed restricted range. Given the social and psychological situation of the observed dyad, and the reluctance of the researchers to impose direction on the inclinations and behaviors of the observed dyad, what has been collected provides an insider-perspective on what could best be termed the indulgent extreme of self-nurturance. No one, not the observeds nor the observers, was willing to explore the lived experience of denial and privation. However, given the data that was collected (essentially the mid to extreme range of self-nurturance) projections can be made to the nihilist extreme.

For this paper the three major themes will be briefly described: "bliss", "rationalization", and "the golden extreme". Bliss is the prime target state, the state of mind and soul of the individual after a period of growth and development induced by self-nurturant behaviours. A classic example of observed bliss occurred annually in the study dyad. Generally in mid-February when the cherry blossoms were blooming (the study was located in Victoria) the obvious self-nurturant behaviours of both individuals of the dyad included repeated comments regarding the "...absolute beauty of the flowers" and "their elegant simplicity as individual flowers..." and "voluptuous complexity when viewed in magnitude."

The dyad increased the frequency of watching the weather channel noting the temperatures and conditions on the prairies and "down east." This frequency peaked when snow storms and extreme low temperatures persisted, and this was accompanied by telephone calls to "folks back home" to "see how things are." This was self-nurturant in the sense of contributing to the growth of satisfaction and adaptation to their life condition thereby stabilizing the social, psychic and physiological entropy of existence, in this way tending towards a state of bliss. The state of bliss was often accompanied by what some may consider trite comments, but to the individuals in a state of bliss were accurate, and perhaps profound, reflections of the phenomenon: "My, but isn't life grand;" "Ahh, this is wonderful." Some (Maguire, 1976; Allard, 1985) have used the alternate term smug to label this particular manifestation but we deemed that it did not capture the positive valencing attributed the state by the individuals who are living the experience.

Rationalization was another strong theme in the information. Individuals often expressed reasons as to why self-nurturant behaviours were of merit. For example, an affinity for red wines of one of the participants was described in a growth related manner in regard to the increased perceptivity and creativeness caused by the consumption of the beverage, and further, that recent articles in the popular press attributed enhanced health and longevity to the consumption of red wine. This was viewed as not only of personal benefit but of general societal benefit not only in the contribution to the coffers of the federal treasury through exorbitant taxation on the alcohol, but also in the reduced drain on the medicare system over the long term. Such protracted, convoluted and yet genuinely believed positions were held for most self-nurturant behaviours recognized by the individuals of the dyad.

The golden extreme was a pattern derived from the observational data rather than any text collected from conversation. If the self-nurturance involved consumption, red wine consumption for example, moderation would occur only if some external environmental constraints were imposed such as a lack of funds to obtain sufficient quantities. Otherwise consumption would be maximized. Another example occurred with the use of meditation which was viewed as self-nurturant in that mental restoration and invigoration, re-establishment of psychic centre, and general rebalancing of the self could be attained. Both individuals practiced meditation to the point of prolonged catharsis, and in fact preferred it as a complete lifestyle. The only reason they maintained active professional lives was the need for revenue to provide what they viewed as necessary resources.

The Cross Cultural Survey

A survey instrument developed in a previous study (McGee, 1979) to measure the levels of general life satisfaction and self-nurturance (GLSSN) was administered to samples of individuals from the West Coast, the Prairies, central Ontario, Quebec and the Maritimes. These populations were chosen to maximize variation. The GLSSN is a forced choice, polychotomously scored, computer-mediated instrument that can be administered either individually using the specially developed GLSSN headgear or in groups by means of a Jumbotron. Demographics (home location, sex, age and height) were also collected.

The GLSSN yields two scores for each individual: General Life Satisfaction (GLS) and Level of Self Nurturance (LSN). Analysis included calculation of descriptive statistics and correlations, and bivariate individual score curve theory analysis (BISCT). BISCT (Rogers, McLean & Hambleton, 1992) is essentially an inverted item response theory (IRT: Lord, 1980) approach. IRT characterizes item performance on the basis of person responses, whereas BISCT characterizes people on the basis of test scores. BISCT generates theta values which are descriptive of the bivariate status of an individual on the full range of the satisfaction/self-nurturant plane.

The first round of analysis was conducted on each sample separately and results were compared across samples. There were no significant differences detected so for further analyses data was pooled.

Descriptive statistics of the GLSSN were best summarized as a frequency distribution for the total sample of respondents (Fig.1). The Self-Nurturant scores were re-metricated utilizing the nosological standardization algorithm of Fossey(1948) thus resulting in a scale of 0.0 to 1.0. From this distribution it can be seen that self-nurturance is essentially normally distributed within the pooled data. The average value was 0.62 with a standard deviation of 0.28. The extremes of the distribution were labeled deprivation and indulgence for what should be obvious reasons, the centre could best be termed balanced self-nurturance (BSN).

The distribution of these data were not unexpected given the recent findings and opinions of Klien (1993). However, the empirical nature of these data certainly lend credence to the notion of the inherent ability of Canadians to look after themselves. Of greater import and uniqueness are the results of the BISCT analyses which yielded Self-nurturant / Satisfaction plots (SNSP's). From these plots it became evident that within the pool of respondents there were archetypical profiles which were more interpretable

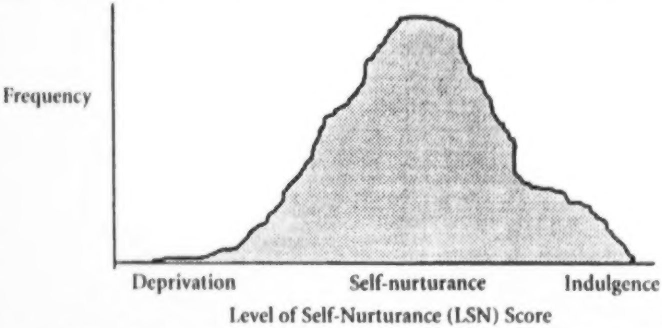


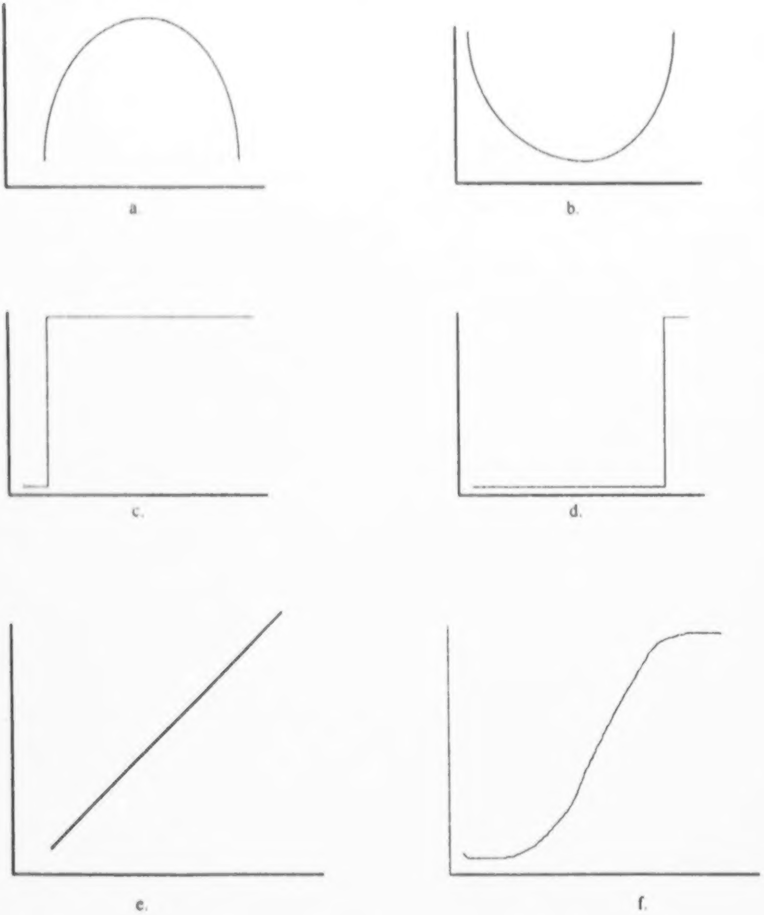
Figure 1: Distribution of Self-Nurturance Scores in Total Sample of Respondents (n=7877)

than simple distributions of pooled data, and were more amenable to the planned procrustean merger (Heitz, 1987) with the observation data of the field studies. Each of the found patterns is based on data from at least 300 respondents and the resulting characteristic person curve (CPC) was smoothed using the LOWESS procedures (Wilkinson, 1990). It was believed that these merged data would then lead to the development of the structural model of self-nurturance.

The SNSP's resulted in highly interpretable representations of the data that resonated with the observed life of self-nurturants investigated in the field study component of these researches. On the basis of the research literature, a number of major patterns had been anticipated and were indeed found. The first major pattern anticipated was what we termed the "golden mean" (Fig. 2a), too much (or little) of a good thing is not all that satisfying. Rather, just enough is just right. Another pattern that was initially believed to be an artifact of data inversion but upon further analysis proved to be accurate, was the "guilt-ridden-masochistic indulgent" (Fig. 2b) who is characterized as being most satisfied at the extremes of self-nurturance. From some of the available observational information, the basis to the lack of satisfaction with moderate levels of self-nurturance is associated with voluminous guilt which apparently dissipates as the state of indulgence is approached or an aesthetic privation is attained.

Departures from the continuous relationships to a dichotomous condition were also found (predominantly with data generated from administrators and accountants). The profile we labeled the "pollyanna" (Fig. 2c) indicates an individual who is maximally satisfied with minimal levels of self-nurturance. The "sulky hedonist" (Fig. 2d) on the other hand, was maximally dissatisfied with all but the indulgent levels of self-nurturance. Incidentally, the dichots were generally reported to be extremely difficult individuals to live with given that that were either insufferably satisfied or unsatisfied.

The pattern associated with the majority of respondents, particularly those from the ranks of academe, shows a constantly increasing satisfaction with increasing levels of self-nurturance; the "material realist" (Fig. 2e). The material realist simply is more satisfied with more self-nurturance, apparently without limit according to our data. A variation on this pattern is a "modulated material realist" (Fig.2f) which is characterized by limits to the change in satisfaction at the extremes of self-nurturance. The modulation is more characteristic of southern Ontario whereas the non-modulated material realist is more common amongst residents of the West Coast.



a. b. c. d. e. f.

Figure 2: Person Characteristic Curves

Some exploratory analyses conducted on small (n<100) datasets revealed some potentially significant variations. Figure 3 demonstrates what are termed guilt-dips in the otherwise linear relationship of satisfaction to self-nurturance in the material realist. It appears that some material realists actually have episodic lapses in increasing satisfaction as self-nurturance increases, a pattern we are confident is not associated with anyone reading this paper.

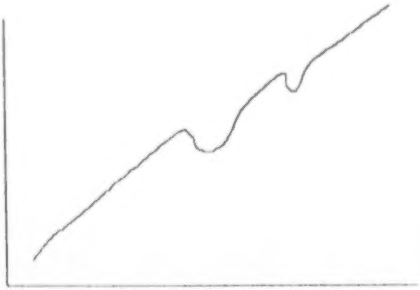


Figure 3: Person Characteristic Curves with *Guilt-Dips*

Conclusion

It is obvious that the findings of both the field study and the survey allow for profound understandings of the human condition. It was the plan to synthesize the two datasets to develop and test a structural model of self-nurturance, and some work has proceeded in this direction. However, as this paper was in preparation the field team defected to their study dyad, in effect creating a self-indulgent quadrad that has rejected the notion of research as a valued activity. In doing so, they absconded with all existing field notes and associated data. This results in an abandonment of the third stage of the project: the procrustean fitting of the empirical GLSSN data with the model of self-nurturance developed from the insights and meanings generated from the dyad of the field study. A preliminary model and novel display protocol had been developed but not yet fully evaluated. It is a sad note upon which to end but it does accurately reflect the dangers of delving into the heart of human self-nurturance.

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"Get Curious, Not Cured!": A Summary of the Connections '95 Conference Proceedings

Marlene Recchi

Providing a summary to conclude the conference proceedings, this paper explores the themes and issues of the preceding presentations. It calls for increased collaboration in the area of research and continued communication among colleagues in education.

During the conference, Connections '95, we saw many examples of connecting, of collaborating, and of getting curious. As I reflect on the past two days, several verbs come to mind: DISCUSS, PRESENT, EXAMINE, CRITIQUE, THINK, and ENJOY current faculty research. In synthesizing the conference, I invite you to connect my impressions with your own thoughts and ideas about the presentations, informal conversations, and other events that caused you to learn and grow – a change in both heart and mind. The essence of change is commitment, energy, and talent. We saw all of these qualities in the research presenters at this conference.

I will reflect on three areas: First, the message – I challenge the University to develop a framework for continued collaborative action research with schools and districts; second, the issues raised during the conference; and third, the common understandings that emerged. My intent is to push your thinking to consider both the what and how of your research.

The Message

I would like to elaborate on the message of change that engaged both the mind and heart of people at this conference. Public education, like all institutions today, is in a state of change. Each one of you probably has a list of reasons: the changing context of our world; economics; the role of the family; new knowledge about learning and what allows learning to happen; and all of those things talked about by Margie Mayfield in her presentation on Family Resource Centres. In addition, an area that I believe requires deep investigation is our changing conception of the organizing principles of the universe: a work of energy and interconnections rather than of things and direct cause and effect relationships. In schools, more and more, I see evidence that energy, not things, becomes the avenue of achievement. We become "curiouser and curiouser" as Antoinette Oberg's work suggests! As a result the school, the university, and the community must come together to look at changing our relationships and the work we do. Together we create a synergy which results in the improvement of student learning.

Your work looks anew at administrators, teachers, parents, and students, and sees them as learners together. In some places, it is still widely accepted that staff learning takes place primarily at a series of workshops, at a conference, or with the help of a long-term consultant. The focus I see developing is a shift to providing a wide array of learning opportunities that engage educators and parents in asking and solving their own questions while working with others. As long as the questions are our questions and not those of the students, teachers, administrators, or parents, no deep changes or learning will occur. We will not engage the heart which results in commitment, energy, and a release of talent, such as Anne Marshall discussed in the "aaha" experience of her students. Universities and school districts need to work together to build a culture of inquiry, where professional learning is an ongoing part of school and district life, and where people develop a sense of personal and professional as they learn.

We have examples. The learner-focused research within a school structure has started, and we need to continue to move this forward in a very overt way. As Lily Dyson said, "Teachers and researchers bring different experiences and perspectives into the collaborative relation." We have been working overtime in the Greater Victoria School District to model a structure which may allow such a collaborative effort to occur. Allow me to talk to this as a way of suggesting a process or structure that you might consider in working with schools and districts. The group from the Bayside Middle School Project presents an example which illustrates the results of such a structure.

Whatever specific educational task the school, or university, or parent group undertakes, the project needs to attend to all parts of the educational system. Schools are part of a complex system, and to bring about change, educators and parents need to understand how that entire system works. All groups need to look at the underlying beliefs that are important in the work being done, and how these beliefs are reflected in and connected to all that the participants do and say. Without a sharing of beliefs, the ongoing improvement of educational systems will not be accomplished. Multiple initiatives are underway: the threads that hold all these initiatives together are the beliefs and the processes that result from those beliefs. Presenters alluded to, or spoke directly to this over the past two days.

Based on common beliefs, groups work together in action research. Programs for change need to assist teachers to research specific classroom, school, or district practices. Again, we saw examples of that over the past two days. Together universities and schools pose the questions, and gather and analyze the data while enabling people to carry on serious educational conversations. As you are aware, data in and of themselves have no meaning. Meaning develops when skilled leaders support individuals and groups in interpreting, validating, and owning the data. This highlights the importance of conversation or inquiry and reflection done in group settings. Analysis of data and indepth conversation demands that collaborative decisions be made. Actions that educators, parents, and teachers must take should be based on beliefs and the results of the research.

The message I received from the conference is that learning is change. To sustain educational change, schools and universities might work together to ensure that a structure is in place within schools to allow this to happen. There are examples throughout North America. Carl Glickman and the League of Professional Schools developed a structure of Covenant, Charter, and Critical Study within schools. Glickman believes that schools must attend to all three parts if deep learning is to occur. In the Victoria District, I work with teachers, parents, students, and administrators in a project known as the *Future Design of Secondary Programs*. The structure we use is action research, founded on our beliefs about learning and collaborative decisions. Research takes place across schools and the district. I quote from one teacher's experience with this project:

> Action research makes one's work not only credible and valuable to others, but gives feedback necessary for reflection and, therefore, helps bring about change that keeps pace with the needs and wishes of those being served. It is essential for planning and growth.

My vision of your work as researchers on a specific educational question within schools is that your research is an integral part of the school and district infrastructure. Research enables a community of learners to develop. Each project may be independent and autonomous as a complete system unto itself. However, in addition, no one or no thing is ever truly separate from the larger system encompassing it. This model is exemplified in the research of Lily Dyson at Hillcrest, Ted Reicken at Belmont, Sandra Gibbons at Uplands, and Kathie Black at Colquitz. My work is with secondary education, and I believe that it is especially important that this model be further developed within the secondary system.

The Issues

Through the research presentations certain issues emerged. I will present these issues in the form of questions. Remember the advice given to Sue Taylor, "Ponder the questions".

1. How can relationships evolve into collegial work efforts based on a common moral purpose and set of common beliefs about students and learning?

2. How can mutually beneficial partnerships among education, business and industry be built to expand learning opportunities and resources for students?

3. Whose "voice" dominates and influences decisions that affect learning? This question was prompted by Margaret Robertson's "right of voice" and the development of human potential.

4. How do we include all voices in our work?

   For example, the students at Bayside talked to older and more powerful individuals and thus broke the hierarchy created in a traditional classroom.

5. How can we ensure that learning moves back and forth between thinking and action?

   Consider the "plan, do, plan, do" model of Michael Fullan.

6. How can we design the operation of schools to build community from diversity, to build unity from difference while using and experiencing the strengths of diversity and difference?

   Delores Stanley's phrase, "degenerating into uniformity" brought about this question.

7. How can all learners be active learners, believing that their experience is relevant and productive?

   Many examples were presented; learning styles, use of artifacts, portfolios, drama.

This list of questions is not inclusive. It represents what I heard and saw. We would need another day to add to and discuss these issues.

Common Understandings

Some common understandings are developing between the university and schools:

1. The change process is upon us and we must use our creative intelligence and forward-thinking to manage this change.

2. The culture of schools and universities needs to reflect respectful collaboration and collegiality and honest communication.

3. The learning of all partners, through an understanding of common beliefs, action research, and decisions made from those beliefs and research, must be the focus of schools and universities.

4. The learning must address both the heart and mind of individuals; an internal happening with external results and implications.
5. The learning must take place in a context where action becomes part of the team work.

Conclusion

Our work is complex and challenging. We can learn much from the sharing of new learnings in situations such as this one. We are developing what Vicki Green called, "shared memory". In keeping with the conference theme of connecting and collaborating, each of us needs to continue to get "curiouser", to develop ideas and actions that will promote "organizational learning" in the broadest sense of that term. Using Peter Senge's definition (1990), "an organization in which people are collectively enhancing their capacity to create things that they really want to create," we must develop a greater understanding of the importance of relationships and non-linear connections as the source of new knowledge (p. 14).

I hope that my comments have captured the essence of our work over the past two days, and have given you an opportunity to think deeply about the further learning that you wish to explore. May I remind you of a definition, again from Senge (1990), "deep learning takes a long time and involves a great deal of dialogue, listening, reflection and mutual understanding;" a process we have investigated over the past two days so, *Get Curious, Not Cured!*

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